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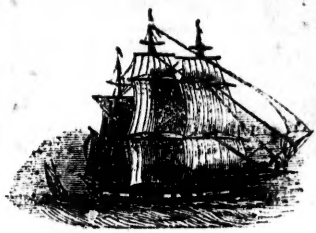
EMIGRATION  CIRCULAR;

OR,

COMPLETE HAND-BOOK AND GUIDE

TO THE

UNITED STATES;

BEING

ENGLAND AND AMERICA CONTRASTED.

PRICE] OCTOBER, 1848. [TWOPENCE.

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EMIGRATION CIRCULAR;

OR,

COMPLETE HAND-BOOK AND GUIDE TO THE UNITED STATES;

BEING

ENGLAND AND AMERICA CONTRASTED.

"*America* is a country *overflowing with prosperity and happiness*—one which knows not the meaning of internal tumult—one of which all the citizens, with scarcely an exception, can command the necessaries of life: meat, drink, clothing, and shelter from the elements in abundance; one in which labour is sure of its reward, yet where Members of Parliament are chosen by *Universal Suffrage*—where neither tithes nor game-laws are to be found, and where the chief magistrate lives with dignity on an income of about £5,000 per annum."—*The Times.*

THE almost universal distress in which the middle and working classes of Great Britain are at this moment involved, has given rise to a co-extensive desire for emigration to some shore whereon they may find exemption from the difficulties and destitution that surround them here. In attempting to come to a conclusion as to the spot most likely to afford the asylum which is thus sought, the emigrant is not unnaturally led to analyse the causes that have produced such misery and ruin at home, in order that he may, if possible, in his contemplated removal, secure himself from their future operation and influence.

The fact that, in the majority of cases, the people thus driven from their native land have come to the conclusion that the sufferings they endure are owing to vicious institutions and mal-government, is clearly evidenced by the great numbers who annually take refuge in the United States, in order to free themselves at once from the sway of a government based upon injustice and supported by class legislation, and become the possessors of those political and social rights which are the inalienable heritage of every human being. An extensive and respectable agent, speaking of the yearly increasing number of emigrants from the port of Liverpool, says, "it appears as if the whole country was going to America, mostly to the States." He further states that these shoals of emigrants are "all manufacturers and mechanics, mostly in the prime of life." It thus appears that the middle and labouring classes are flying from the perspective bankruptcy and positive pauperism engendered by the oppressive laws and bad arrangements of this country, to one where the laws are based on equal justice; to a land where capital has fair play, unfettered by laws of primogeniture and entail, and where industry has a chance of securing its possessor from want, or the humiliating and degrading receipt of reluctantly extorted relief in a Union Workhouse, avowedly administered on the principle, that poverty must be punished as a crime. Indeed, a comparison of the dietary and general treatment of the criminals and paupers of England abundantly proves, that in the estimation of its law-makers and administrators, poverty is the worst crime in existence, and is the most severely punished. The wide-spread conviction and sad experience of the evils resulting from mis-government and unjust institutions, render it unnecessary for us to occupy much room in pointing out the operations of these causes in detail, and, by consequence, the comparative immunity which the emigrant secures by locating himself in the United States. Town after town, district after district has issued its statistics of distress. Mills standing still, or but partially worked—furnaces blown out—wages insufficient to support existence, even where employment can be secured—houses untenanted—streets deserted—shops without customers—and the great bulk of large, and formerly industrious communities, living upon soup and coarse bread, doled out at public kitchens, and furnished by charity—these are the prominent

points of the gloomy picture presented to us. The sad condition of the industrious classes has been frequently stated in parliament, but without any hopes being held out of measures to substantially alleviate or improve it. The government "deeply sympathise" with the sufferers; "admire the heroic patience with which they endure" unparalleled misery; but there the matter ends. Such is the nature and extent of the sympathy of those in power, with the distress of those who have made Great Britain to overflow with wealth! Of a reduction in the hordes of placemen, pensioners, sinecurists, salaried officers of state; in the number of our immense standing army, or the expenses of an extravagant court, or the price of a church, which costs more than all the other ecclesiastical establishments of Christendom put together; of a reduction in the amount of these enormous burdens, imposing taxes of the nominal sum of £60,000,000 per annum (but in reality, by the alteration in the value of money made by Peel's bill, £120,000,000), we hear nothing. And hence it is no wonder that, borne to the earth by the pressure of this enormous taxation, fettered and obstructed at every turn by the laws and institutions necessary to prop up such an iniquitous system as that which is supported by it, the industry of the country should have resolved to escape from its incubus-like weight, to a region where such incumbrances and violations of equity are unknown.

Information of an authentic nature, and easily accessible, respecting the country to which, as an ark of refuge, so many of our countrymen are at this moment eagerly looking, is therefore a desideratum, which it is the intention of the present publication to supply, as far as its limited size and small price will permit. The reader may, however, depend upon the instruction and facts offered as having been selected and collated from the best authorities, in an extensive reading upon the subject. We shall first give an outline of the constitution of the transatlantic republic, in order that the emigrant may be aware of the privileges to which he will be entitled, and the duties which will be expected from him in return by the country of his adoption. Secondly, The most favourable fields for agricultural and manufacturing employment. Thirdly, Wages and their relative value, or what they will bring out of the market. Fourthly, Climate, and its effect upon the health. Fifthly, Information respecting shipping, provisions for the voyage, and general instructions. We hope thus to put within the power of the poorest of our fellow-countrymen a store of knowledge which they will find of great present and permanent value.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES.

The constitution is essentially popular, and there is no office in the country to which a naturalized foreigner is ineligible.

The government is strictly republican. The administration of affairs is confided by federal constitution to three grand departments; namely, the legislative, executive, and the judiciary. The legislation branch of government is composed of delegates chosen from the body of the people, for the period of two years, who are required to assemble in general congress, annually, for the purpose of enacting such laws and deliberating upon such subjects as the exigencies of the country at large may require. This body is denominated the House of Representatives, who, in conjunction with the senate, composed of two members from each state, chosen by the several territorial legislatures, constitute the first department.

The executive branch of the government is constituted by the president, who is elected by the people for the period of four years; and the senate, without whose advice and consent the president is almost wholly devoid of power, not having authority even to appoint his own cabinet council.

The judiciary is composed of seven judges, nominated by the president, and confirmed by the senate, who are supreme in all their decisions upon legal and constitutional questions referred to them in the shape of appeals, not only from state sovereignties, but also from the grand consolidated union. These judges are appointed during good behaviour, and are amenable to the people for official misconduct only through the medium of the United States' senate.

It will be perceived that the senate is in every respect the most important assembly known to the federal constitution, combining, as they do, legislative, executive, and judicial functions. The feelings and interests of every state are here equally concentrated; and from this body alone is derived the salvation of the country in all cases of emergency.

The executive branch of the government is subdivided into the following departments, viz.

Department of State,	Department of War,
Department of the Treasury,	Department of the Navy,
Post-Office Department,	Attorney-General,

the heads of which are styled secretaries; they are ineligible to a seat in either house of the national representation, but sit as a privy council for advice to the president in all matters with which he is officially charged. The three grand divisions of government enact and carry into effect all laws of a general nature, and superintend the welfare of the whole nation, but refer to local or state assemblies the power of governing themselves agreeably to the wishes of the people, and in their own particular mode; hence it is that no two of the states are governed alike, or subject to the same code of laws. The national statute has only made it imperative on the different members of the union to aid and assist each other in prosecuting to justice all delinquents or violators either of the state or federal constitutions.

The congress of the United States has the exclusive privilege of levying duties on imposts, regulating commerce, and of declaring war; and the states are bound by the federal compact to sustain the national executive in the discharge of all such official obligations.

That any bill introduced into either the senate or house of representatives, become a law, it is necessary that the same be passed by a majority of both houses upon its third reading, and receive the signature of the president of the United States; or if he object thereto, two-thirds of the senate and of the house of representatives agreeing, it is the law of the land to all intents and purposes, the objections of the president to the contrary notwithstanding, and he is constitutionally bound to see that it be duly enforced.

The power of conducting all treaties is confided to the president, and the power of ratifying the sume is held exclusively by the senate in its executive capacity.

The senate, in the discharge of their judicial functions, sit as often as circumstances may require, as the only high court for the trial of federal officers impeached by the lower house for official malversation; and the prosecution, under such circumstances, must be conducted by a committee from the house who has laid the information.

The district of Columbia—which has been appropriated exclusively to the uses and purposes of the general government—contains three cities: viz., Washington, Georgetown, and Alexandria. In the former city are located the capitol of the nation—the president's house, and all other public buildings rendered necessary at the seat of government. The capitol is built after the plan of St. Peter's Cathedral at Rome. The president's house is large and magnificently furnished, and has much the appearance of Goldsmith's Hall, London. White marble being found in the greatest profusion in many parts of the United States, all public and many private buildings are built of that beautiful and splendid material. The district of Columbia is only a place of importance during the sessions of congress; its population is little short of fifty thousand.

The constitution of the country declares that no particular religious belief or denomination of Christians shall be tolerated by government to the exclusion of others, holding as sound doctrine, that as man is by nature free and independent, it would be an abridgment of his liberties were he required to worship his God otherwise than according to the dictates of his own conscience. Under such wise and humane constitutional provisions, it will be readily assumed as a fact, that the various sects of professing christians to be found throughout the world flourish in this country in proportion to the measure of their good deeds

The framers of the federal constitution were so perfectly guarded upon this subject, that the Sabbath, or day of rest, is nowhere alluded to in that most important instrument. Each and every state, however, in its individual capacity, has enacted laws requiring, to a certain extent, the observance of the first day of the week as a day of rest, humiliation, and prayer, and enjoining under penalties the cessation of all unnecessary business on that day.

The salaries of the leading public officers are as follow:

	Dollars.	£.	s.		Dollars.	£.	s.
President, per annum	25000 or	5000	0	Foreign Ministers ..	9000 —	1800	0
Vice-President	5000 —	1000	0	Chargé des Affaires	3500 —	700	0
Secretary of State ..	6000 —	1200	0	Members of Congress, per day, during the Session	8 —	1	12
Secretary of Treasury	6000 —	1200	0				
Secretary of War ..	6000 —	1200	0				
Secretary of Navy ..	6000 —	1200	0	Members of the Senate	12 —	2	8
Postmaster-General	6000 —	1200	0				

and one day's pay for each twenty miles travelling to and returning from the seat of government, according to the most direct mail route.

Those who wish to avail themselves of the right of citizenship will have to reside five years in the United States before they become entitled to it, and they must have declared their intentions so to do at least two years before admission. One year's residence also is necessary, after the application has been made, in some part of the same state; and there are courts appointed in all places for the registration of these declarations of intentions.

When the party applies for this purpose, a certificate is made out, for which 50 cents, or half a dollar, is demanded; this is again presented at the expiration of the full term of five years, when, if the conditions are found in every respect to have been fulfilled, he is at once, and upon paying some trifling additional fees, taking the oath of allegiance, and subscribing to the naturalization laws, admitted to the full rghts of free-citizenship.

All the privileges, immunities, and advantages belonging to the institutions of the country are then thrown open to the foreigner; he then, in fact, becomes eligible for offices of every description, whether corporate, belonging to state legislatures, or to the general government—except that of the president, who must be a native-born American.

The children also of a naturalized citizen, if under man's estate, are free by virtue of the parent's right, and by their own, if under a certain age, at the time of their arrival in the country.

No one is ever solicited to become a free citizen, except, perhaps, at times when orders for the performance of military duty, or summonses for the non-attention to it, are served by mistake, and appeals are made against them. Then some observations may be made, and questions asked relative to the future intentions of the party, and the matter be pressed a little in order that a claim may be made upon him to take share in those duties; but if not so disposed, it is only necessary to state his disinclination, and urge the plea of alienship, to be in every respect exonerated.

Without naturalization, the emigrant has no power either to hold or convey real estate or property.* It also confers great advantages in the taking out of patents in the United States-office, where the difference between the alien and the native right is enormous. The latter can obtain this protection for about 30 dollars, while it costs the former nearly five hundred.

These privileges, however, are not to be had without a price. If the foreigner becomes entitled to the rights and immunities, he is also liable to the pains and penalties of citizenship. He must of necessity become, for a term of years, either a fireman or a soldier; that is, he must learn and practise either a soldier

* Laws, however, in various states, differ as much in this respect as in others, and frequently alter, nullify, and suspend their previous enactments. A recent enactment of the New York State Legislature, the duration of which is five years, empowers the alien to do both of these things.

or a fireman's duty. He may choose between them, but there is no escape from one or the other. There is no remuneration for either of the duties: of the two, military duty is decidedly preferable; and these, with other minor inconveniences, may be endured for the slight taxation which is the consequence. The right of free citizenship also introduces the foreigner to the power of serving on juries, standing for constable, &c.; but service in either of the compulsory cases of fire or military duty constitutes exemption, if he chooses to avail himself of it.

"There is another great advantage, likewise, the parent has in the United States, which ought not to be overlooked. This consists in the privilege of sending his children of either sex, and however numerous, after the age of seven years, to the 'Public Schools,' where they are fully instructed in the ordinary branches of education, wholly free of expense.

"These schools are common to all parts of the United States; but in the state of New York they abound, particularly in all the large cities, which are usually divided into a suitable number of districts, in each of which a school-house is erected. In the state of New York alone there are upwards of ten thousand of these free schools, including those for the coloured population, which are perfectly distinct, giving instruction to five hundred thousand scholars, at the annual expense of 1,500,000 dollars. They are all subject to the legislative jurisdiction of each individual state, which differ very little from one another in their management of them; are supported from many sources, such as by grant from each several state, by local funds, voluntary contributions, and by taxation levied upon the property of the people. The buildings for these public shools are, in most cases, erected for the special purpose; all upon the same plan—lofty, capacious, light, and airy, constantly kept clean, and altogether possessing immense advantages in these respects over the ordinary schools in common dwelling-houses.

"These schools are subject to the periodical visits of commissioned superintendents, who examine into the proper fitness of everything belonging to them, and particularly into the proficiency of the scholars. Nothing, in short, is omitted that will tend to their comfort and convenience, or facilitate their progress; and the progress of children, under such favourable circumstances, is a thing which may be fairly calculated upon. Attached to many of these schools, there is evening intruction for youth who may require it, but whose time may be occupied by daily labour."

The late Mr. Cobbet, in his "Emigrant's Guide," thus sums up the reasons which make emigration to the United States preferable to any other country:

"There is no other country, except English colonies, in which the English language is spoken, and in which the habits and manners are the same. This is one great thing; but there is no other country in which there is a superabundance of good lands, and in which an increase of the population must necessarily be an advantage to the country. There is no other country where there is any room for numerous strangers; and besides all these, there is no other country where the people have to pay so small a portion of taxes, and where kind and generous neighbours are to be found in abundance. To all these advantages, add that of perfect civil and political liberty, and that, as to religion, the *law* knows nothing at all about it."

FIELDS FOR AGRICULTURAL AND MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY.

The celebrated writer we have just quoted, says, "There is no other country in which there is such a superabundance of good lands." The facts by which the assertion is supported are so well known as to obviate the necessity for detailed proofs. As a mere specimen, however, of the capabilities of the states in this respect, we offer the following sketch, from Matthews' "Emigration Fields," of *The Mississippi Basin*.—"This vast extent of very fertile territory, in which rivers, navigable for three thousand miles upward from the ocean, hold their course, extends from the Lake of Canada on the north, to the Gulf

of Mexico on the south, and from the highlands of the Alleghany and Cumberland ranges on the east, to the Rocky Mountains far to the westward.

"The greatest labour of Hercules, the noblest deeds recorded of man in ancient or modern history, sink to nought when compared to the doings of Brother Jonathan. It was but as yesterday when he stood on the highest summit of the Alleghany range, and gazing down upon the illimitable western wilderness, boldly resolved to people the whole extent; and already cities, and towns, and villages, and innumerable clearances, are scattered over nearly a million of square miles. True to his purpose, Jonathan is progressing in a ratio of increase never before equalled; and in the course of a century, at the present increment, this great and most fertile field for the extension of the human race will contain a progeny exceeding the whole of the population of Europe.

"This great river-land rises almost imperceptibly from the level of the Mexican gulf at New Orleans, to the neighbourood of the Canadian lakes, where it atains an elevation of nearly six hundred feet above the sea. It is comparatively a level country, with only gentle undulations, and, in some places to the westward, with rounded gravel hillocks relieving the uniformity. A great portion of it, like Upper Canada, consists of limestone strata covered with a pretty thick layer of diluvium, constituting a fertile and manageable soil. The eastern half was, fifty years ago, a continued forest of hard-wood trees, but in which numerous clearances have now been effected by the industry of the settler and the demand for timber-fuel to the numerous steamers. To the west, beyond the confluence of the Mississippi and the Missouri, a considerable portion of the country consists of prairies—extensive fields covered with tall rough grasses, and skirted by portions of forest. The absence of trees in these extensive meads has been variously accounted for; some attributing it to conflagrations (the most probable cause), some to the dryness of the climate. It is also not impossible that the gramineæ, though a comparatively small order of plants, may have greater power of occupancy than the trees in the locality, the rank grass smothering the annual shoot rising from the forest-tree seed. These beautiful prairies, frequently wider than the eye can reach across, afford most excellent stations for the settlers who migrate thus far westward. They locate themselves in a circular ring around the margin of these flowery, grassy plains, where the forest belt affords plenty of timber for houses, enclosures, and fuel; they cultivate the nearer portion of the prairie, where not a stone is to be found, and nothing interferes with the ploughshare but the strong roots of the grassy sward; and they drive their herds to pasture a little farther into the interior of what appears like a verdant sea. The pastoral life is far more desirable here than in British America, the winter being only about one-half as long as in the maritime provinces of St. Lawrence, or even in Upper Canada, while the herculean labour of removing the dense forest which covers nearly the whole of America to the eastward, is not required. Immense herds of wild cattle once fed upon these pastures; but they, like the red Indian, have retired westward before the fire-armed European, and are now only to be found towards the base and amid the fastnesses of the Rocky Mountains. This fine prairial country, were measures taken to destroy the wild dogs or wolves, might be rendered very productive of wool, the export of which down to New Orleans would be easily accomplished.

"The great distinguishing features of the Mississippi Basin are the vast abundance of fine level land, capable of supporting a very dense population, and the immense system of rivers ramifying through it, a number of the tributaries of the Mississippi flowing a distance of one thousand miles before they join the grand stream, and being conveniently navigable for nearly their whole course by steam-vessels.

"The rivers are the highways, the lines of traffic, the land marks, the connecting medium with the world of civilisation, the system of nerves by which the electric currents of opinion and social sympathy are transmitted from the more vital parts to the extremities. In North America, a strong and constant

tide of emigration is setting westward. There is a fascination in the wilderness. The bold young American of the north-eastern states chooses a helpmate, collects some clothing, takes up his rifle and hatchet, and, trusting entirely to his own prowess, marches off in the direction of the setting sun. He crosses the Blue Mountains, commits himself and mate to the rivers, and penetrates more than a thousand miles into the heart of the western wilderness. There is something highly exciting and grateful to youthful daring and independence in travelling onwards in search of a future home, and having found some sweet, encouraging spot, in the bosom of the wilderness, in rearing everything by one's own handiwork.

"The superior means of communication in this region, and the absence of natural and artificial barriers, as it is being occupied, with the exception of the slave population southward, by one race speaking one language, dispose it for becoming the seat of one very great empire, perhaps exceeding the Chinese in population, while, from the superior energy of the race, and higher civilisation, it will be incomparably superior to the Chinese in national influence, and in power over the future destinies of man."

Judge Hall, as quoted by Buckingham in his lately-published travels in America, thus describes the eligibility of these prairies for the purposes of the emigrant:

"The settler may always select, on our prairies, land as fertile as the richest river-bottoms, and by settling in the edge of the timber, combine every advantage afforded by the latter. He finds the land already cleared, and has only to enclose it. The labour of bringing it into cultivation is already trifling. A heavy plough and a strong team are required the first year, to turn over the soil. The corn is dropped in the furrows, and covered with a hoe, and no other labour is bestowed upon it until it is fit to gather, because, during that year, the corn cannot be tended in the ordinary way, as the sod, already bound together by the fibrous roots of the grass, is merely turned, and not pulverised so as to admit of tillage. But by turning the grass down, exposing the roots to the sun, and leaving the sod undisturbed, it becomes mellow in one season, and while undergoing the process of decomposition, it affords nourishment to the growing corn. The crop thus raised is not abundant, nor is the grain very good; but something like half the usual crop is raised, which amply pays for the labour of planting and gathering. By the ensuing spring, the roots of the wild grass are found to be completely rotted, and the plough is put into a rich, light mould, fit for all the purposes of husbandry. The ordinary operations of farming may now be conducted in the usual way; and the labour of cultivating a light soil unencumbered with rocks and stumps is so trifling, as to leave time for the farmer to improve his lands and buildings. The plough runs on a level plain of rich mould, and may be managed by a half-grown lad as well as in the other by the strongest ploughman. In timber-lands newly-cleared, ploughing requires both strength and skill: the plough must be sharpened frequently, and is often broken; and at the best the ploughing goes on slowly. The difference, in the greater facility of working prairie lands, the saving in the wear of all implements of husbandry, the economy of time, and of course the greater degree of certainty in the farmer's calculations, the enjoyment of health, are so great as, in our opinion, to outweigh any inconvenience which can possibly be experienced in this country for the want of timber, even under the most unfavourable circumstances. A farmer had better settle in the midst of a prairie, and haul his fuel and rails *five miles*, than undertake to clear a farm in the forest. The farmers of Illinois are beginning to be aware of this, and there are now many instances in which farmers, having purchased a small piece of land for timber, in the woodland, make their farm in the prairie. It is only necessary to make a nice calculation of the time consumed in the transportation of wood for fuel and other purposes, and to observe how small a proportion it bears to the other labours of a farm, in order to satisfy himself, or any one at all acquainted with the subject, that it is really a matter of no importance when brought into competition with the advantages of a prairie country.

"People will not for ever make worm fences, live in log cabins, and warm themselves by log-heaps built up in great wooden chimnies, which occupy nearly the whole gable-end of the house. In the open champaign country it is not possible that the planting of hedges can long be delayed. If they can be used with advantage in any country, they certainly will succeed in ours. The climate is well adapted to the English whitethorn; and we have several indigenous thorns which are admirably suited to the purpose. The conformation of the country and its fertility render it easy to plant, to cultivate, to protect, and to perpetuate the hedge; and every circumstance combines to recommend this mode of enclosure. In the great part of the prairie region, building-stone cannot be had; but in such places brick may always be substituted by those who want to build good houses. The stratum of clay which is found under our soil is well suited for brick-making, and, in such places, can be obtained by removing the light covering of loam which forms the surface. As for fuel, there is no difficulty. No part of this country has been explored in which coal does not abound; that is to say, there is no extensive district without it. It is found in the broken lands and bluff banks of all our watercourses, and though seldom met with within the area of a prairie, it abounds on the borders of all the streams which meander among these plains. That it has not been brought into use at all is a proof of what we have asserted; viz., that wood is abundant. Whenever the farmer shall discover that his forest-trees have become more valuable, and worth preserving, he will have recourse to those inexhaustible stores of fuel which nature has treasured up in the bowels of the earth."

The same authority gives a full description of the present condition of the states in this vast region; from which it is to be inferred that Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio present the greatest attractions for the agricultural settler who has strength and nerve enough to face the initiatory difficulties of these, as yet, thinly-peopled but inviting regions.

"The state of Illinois presents to the farmer a combination of advantages, in reference to its productions, which are scarcely to be met with in any other country. Situated in the same latitude with Pennsylvania and Virginia, it yields all the products which arrive at maturity in those states, while its interior position protects it from the extremities and vicissitudes of climate which are felt upon the sea-coast, where the warmth of spring is chilled by storms rushing from snow-clad mountains, and the ocean-breeze, sweeping at all seasons over the land, produces sudden changes, and often reverses, for a time, the order of the seasons. Although we are not exempt from the operation of such casualties, we believe there is no country where the just expectations of the farmer are so seldom blighted as in ours. We may plant early or late—we carry on the business of husbandry throughout the whole year, and we find but few days at any one time in which the labourer may not be usefully employed. We have the advantage of various climates, without suffering greatly from their inclemency.

"Wheat, rye, barley, buck-wheat, oats, hemp, flax, turnips, and Irish potatoes, all of which arrive at perfection in more northern climates, succeed well here. The latter, particularly, attain a degree of size and excellence that we have never seen exceeded, and the crops yield abundantly. The produce of the potatoe crop is from twenty to twenty-fourfold. No crop pays in quantity and quality more than this, for careful cultivation. The crops raised vary from one hundred and fifty to eight hundred bushels to the acre. The latter, however, is an extraordinary crop. The turnip is raised only for the table, but produces well. With regard to wheat there is some diversity of opinion, not whether this grain will grow, but whether it is or is not produced in this country in its *greatest perfection*. We are inclined to adopt the affirmative of this proposition. It is true that our crops vary much both in quantity and quality of produce; but we are satisfied that the disparity arises from the degree of care bestowed on the culture. Our husbandry is yet in a raw state. Wheat is often sowed in new land but partially cleared, often upon corn-ground but badly prepared; often covered carelessly with the plough, without any attempt to pulverise the

soil, and very generally in fields which have produced an abundant crop of grass and weeds the preceding autumn. Few of our farmers have barns or thrashing-floors: the grain is preserved in stacks, and trodden out, at considerable loss and damage, upon the ground. With all these disadvantages, excellent crops are raised, and the grain is remarkably good. We learn, from most respectable authority, that the wheat produced in Illinois and Missouri is better than any produced in the other states: it is worth more to the baker, and the bread made from it is lighter and more nutritious. The fact is attributed to the richness of the soil and the dryness of the atmosphere: the former cause brings the grain to its greatest state of perfection, while the latter protects it from all those injuries which moisture produces.

"Hemp and flax grow well; the former has been cultivated very extensively, and with success, in Kentucky, for many years, and the product is said to be of excellent quality. It is raised with the greatest success in the counties around Lexington. The quantity of nett hemp produced to the acre is from six hundred to a thousand weight; the price of the lint, when prepared for the manufacturer, has varied from 3 to 8 dollars for the long hundred. The average from 4 to 5.

"We have the grape, plum, crab-apple, cherry, persimmon, gooseberry, mulberry, strawberry, raspberry, paw-paw, and blackberry growing wild. Of these the grape is the most important, and perhaps the most abundant. It is found in *all the Western States*, and in every variety of soil; in the prairies it is interwoven with every thicket, and in the river bottoms it climbs to the top of the tallest trees. The vine is very prolific, and the fruit excellent. Indeed, we do not know of any part of the United States where the vine, the native grape, flourishes so luxuriantly. We know of one gentleman who made twenty-seven barrels of wine in a single season, from the grapes gathered, with but little labour, in his immediate neighbourhood. The French who first settled in this country are said to have made a wine resembling claret, which was so good that the merchants of Bordeaux used exertions to prevent its exportation, and procured an edict to that effect."

The yeomen of the United States, especially the more settled portions of them, are described by the traveller most highly esteemed, as being, beyond comparison, the most independent and comfortable race of men anywhere to be found. They constitute the real strength of American society. Mr. Buckingham, in his account of his recent travels in America, has given a vivid picture of the general condition and usual pursuits of the farming class, as he witnessed them while on a visit to a friend at Ballston Centre, in the state of New York, from which we take the following extract:

"We remained at this agreeable and happy abode for about ten days, in the full enjoyment of the most delightful weather, pleasant rides and walks, books, and occasional visits, and frank-hearted and intelligent entertainers, full of elevated thoughts and benevolent feelings, and never more happy than while projecting plans and indulging hopes for the improvement of the condition of society.

"During our stay at Mr. Delevan's, we had an opportunity of visiting many of the neighbouring farmers, and receiving visits from others, with their families, as well as inspecting the condition of many of their farms, and becoming acquainted with the circumstances of the farm labourers; for we were now entirely in the country, several miles from any town, and among people wholly devoted to agricultural life.

"In the general appearance of the surface of the country, England is far superior to America. The great perfection to which every kind of cultivation has there attained; the noble mansions of the wealthy gentry; the fine parks and lawns; the beautiful hedge-row fences; the substantial stone farm-houses and out-buildings, and the excellent roads and conveyances which are seen in almost every part of England, are not to be found here. But though in these outward appearances American farming districts are inferior to England, yet in all the substantial realities the superiority is on the side of America.

"In America, the occupier of a farm, whether large or small, is almost invariably the owner, and the land he cultivates he can therefore turn to what purpose he considers it the most fitted for; hence all the disagreeable differences between landlords and tenants—the raising of rents, after expensive and laborious improvements; or ejectments for voting at an election, or interference in parochial affairs, in a way not pleasing to the lord of the soil—together with the interference of clerical magistrates, so fertile a source of annoyance in England, are here unknown. There being no tithes here, great or small, for the support of a state clergy, all that large class of troubles growing out of tithe disputes and tithe compositions are here unheard of. The labourers being fewer than are required, and wages being high, there are neither paupers nor poors'-rates, and neither workhouses nor gaols are required for the country population, since abundance of work and good pay prevent poverty, and take away all temptation to dishonesty. There being no ranks or orders, such as the esquire or baronet, the baron and the earl, the marquis and the duke, each to compete with and outvie the other in outward splendour, which so often lead to inward embarrassment, as in England, the country residents are free from foolish ambition, which devours the substance of so many at home; and all those idle disputes and distinctions about old families and new ones—people of high and people of low birth, country families and strangers, which so perplex the good people of England, when a country meeting or a country ball takes place, so as to set persons in their right place—to admit some and exclude others, &c., are here happily unthought of. The consequence is, that with more sorts of pleasure and fewer of dissatisfaction, the American country gentry and farmers are much better off, and much happier than the same class of people in England; and in short scarcely anything ever occurs to ruffle the serenity of a country and happy life in the well settled parts of America.

"If the contrast is striking between the American and English farmer, it is still more so between the farm labourers of the two countries. In England it is well known what miserable wages the farm labourers receive—ten to twelve shillings perhaps the average." (The highest, it should be.) "What scanty fare they are obliged to subsist upon. Flesh meat once or twice a week at the most! And how perpetually they stand in danger of the workhouse, with all their anxiety and strife to avoid it; with no education themselves, and no desire to procure any for their children. Here (America) there is not a single labourer on the farm who receives less than a dollar a day, or twenty-four shillings per week, while many receive more; and those that are permanently attached to the farm receive that sum, or equal to it, throughout the year. And where they are residents on the farm, they have as good living as prosperous tradesmen in the middle ranks of life enjoy in England. Three substantial meals a day, and in hay and harvest time four, with abundance and variety at each. At the same time they enjoy the advantage of excellent schools for the education of their children, almost gratuitously; neat little cottages for themselves and families to live in; a little plot of ground for gardening, and privileges in great number.

"The consequence is, that the farm labourers and their families are well fed, well dressed, well educated in all the ordinary elements of knowledge, intelligent in conversation, agreeable in manners, and as superior to the corresponding class in England as all those advantages can indicate.

"On Mr. Delevan's own farm, there was scarcely a labourer who had not money placed out at interest.

"It may also be mentioned, that in the farming district in and around this spot (Ballston Centre), where, from the influence exerted by Mr. Delevan, and the spread of the temperance publications, the practice of total abstinence from all that will intoxicate is nearly universal, the health and longevity of the population is greater than in any other part of the country. The deaths do not reach two per cent. per annum, varying from one to six-tenths to one to eight-tenths. The ages extend to eighty and ninety *ordinarily;* and by the latest examination of the labouring people, it was ascertained there was only one person in 1152 receiving pecuniary relief, as being unable to subsist himself.

"The greatest difference of all, however, between the agricultural population of England and that of America, is to be seen in their relative degrees of intelligence. In England none, I presume, will deny the fact of the farmers and farm labourers being among the least intelligent and most uneducated portion of the population; here, on the contrary, they are among the most informed. A great number of the occupiers of farms are persons who, having been successful in business in cities, have retired at an early period of life, bought an estate, take delight in cultivating it on their own account for income; and, as from four to ten per cent. is realised on farming capital, where carefully attended to, it is at once a safe and profitable investment.

"These gentlemen, having a good deal of leisure, little parish business to attend to, and a taste for books and love of information, read a great deal more than the busy inhabitants of commercial cities, and have the power of exercising their judgment and reflection more free from the bias of party views and sectarian feelings, than those who live in large commercial cities. Their previous education and ample means dispose others also to works of benevolence; and the consequence is, that while their conversation is more intelligent, and their manners greatly superior to the English farmers generally, they devote a large portion of their time and means to the establishment of Sunday schools, district schools, societies for mutual improvement, country libraries, temperance societies, savings' banks, and, in short, everything that can elevate those below them, and make them happier in their stations.

"It is true there are no taverns, as in the market towns of England, to absorb half the profits made at market, by the drinking of the buyers and sellers, as is the case with the English farmers; and as their mode of visiting and entertaining is social and economical, families are continually interchanging evening visits with each other, to take a cup of tea, ice cream, sweetmeats, or other delicacies, but without spirits or wine, beer or cider; retiring early, and all coming or going in vehicles adapted to their own means, from gigs and phaetons to carriages and family wagons; for there is no tax nor duty on carriages, harness, or servants, all being free to ride or walk as suits their pleasure."

Much of the preceding is, no doubt, inapplicable to the situation of the farmer in the more thinly-peopled and remote states; but, though the refinements and means of intellectual enjoyments of the older states may be lacking, the same abundance of the materials requisite to physical comfort are to be found. No one need "die by starvation," and the other good things will follow in due time.

TRADES, WAGES, AND THEIR RELATIVE VALUE.

With respect to trades, it is obvious that the older states offer scope for a greater variety of occupations than the new ones; but, for all belonging to the mechanic arts, or which in any way are recommended by utility, there is a certainty of ready employment, and, in almost all cases, better pay than in this country. Indeed, those trades which are with us considered inferior, and therefore most indifferently remunerated, are, in America, held in the greatest estimation. The emigrant's chance of employment and good wages is, however, much increased in proportion as he removes from the seaboard towns, into which the vast tide of foreign labour is continually flowing, and therefore necessarily producing a glut in the market, and its concomitant consequences, comparative scarcity of work and inferiority of remuneration. But on this head we shall have occasion to speak more fully when we come to give personal directions to emigrants.

The following trades are all good, and certain of meeting with good encouragement:—Bricklayers, masons, stonecutters and marble polishers, carpenters, painters, plasterers, blacksmiths, whitesmiths, coachsmiths and locksmiths, tinplate and sheet-iron workers, tailors, shoemakers and hatters, saddlers, harness makers, trunk and leather case makers, coach makers and its accompanying trades, turners, carvers and gilders, ship builders, and all the trades connected with that branch of industry may be said to be the best employed and remunerated in the states; wheelwrights, coopers, millwrights and mechanics. These

are all decidedly good trades. The wages in those first enumerated vary from 10 to 16, 17, and even in some of them as high as 20 dollars per week; the general average, however, may be taken at about 10 or 12 dollars, or from £2 2s. to £2 10s. sterling.

The trades connected with the letter-press printing and ornamental work are, with few exceptions, scarcely so good as those just enumerated; still, they present an average not materially different. Copper-plate printing is paid for exceedingly well, and in general there is plenty of work; wages from 12 to 15 dollars, superior hands may earn from 18 to 20 per week. Die-sinking is a good business, and well remunerated. Goldsmiths and jewellers, or manufacturing jewellers, as they are called in the States, is, perhaps, in all its branches the trade most favourably situated, both in respect to wages and certainty of work. In New York, 12, 15, and 18 dollars are customary wages. Brush making is a fair trade in nearly all the states. Glass cutting, blowing, and casting are pretty brisk trades, and fairly remunerated. Gardeners meet with good encouragement, especially in the neighbourhood of the principal cities of the eastern states. Shopmen, clerks, piano-forte makers, gun makers, watch makers, lithographers, cutlers, and upholsterers are rather inferior businesses in the prospect they offer of permanent or extensive employment or large remuneration. The shopmen and clerks are, indeed, paid at a less rate than common labourers. For these latter, the United States offer a tempting field. According to a valuable work entitled the "Mechanic's and Labourer's Guide," issued by C. Knight—to which we are indebted for the information we have condensed in the preceding paragraphs—it appears that:

"In all parts of America there are fair prospects of employment for the foreign labourer. The Atlantic or larger cities are, to be sure, the best places; but go where he will, he is certain almost of meeting with it. In these cities he will get also the highest rate of wages, being upon the average about one dollar a day; but as his expenses are increased in proportion, this sum is no greater benefit to him than a smaller amount would be in most places in the interior. The wages of the labourer in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore are much about the same, perhaps a trifle higher in the first of these cities. In other parts of the states, however, they differ very much in rate of pay; but as they differ materially also in the rate of general expenses, it will be found, in the end, perhaps, as before stated, that the advantages are about equal.

"In the southern states and cities, the labour of this class of persons is decidedly at a premium; but there are in those parts a multitude of drawbacks to it. Perhaps there is no employ so good, all the year round, as that of the public works, which are constantly proceeding in some parts or other of the various states. Here the labourer gets the fullest amount of wages, can live cheap, meets with few temptations to spend his money, being mostly away from towns and cities, and is enabled in everything to keep down his expenses. There are few who are employed on these works who, moderately temperate and commonly careful, do not, at the expiration of their engagements, leave with considerable sums of money in their possession.

"In the eastern Atlantic cities, ship and wharf labourers, for whom there is a great demand, get the highest rate of pay. They formerly had but one dollar and a quarter per day; but at the time of the great strike they obtained an advance of twenty-five cents a day, making nine dollars a week. As well as being an abundance, there is also a great variety of employ in the United States for the labourer. Building, quarrying, stone work, excavation, levelling, and laying out of streets, making docks, quays, jetties, piers, or slips, filling in of waters, making out of land, digging drains, wells, sewers, canals and railroads, and common roads, paving, &c., are operations constantly carrying on in all American cities, either by contractors, corporations, the several states, or the general government. These are the works on which the Irish labourer is generally engaged; Scotch and English are mostly assistants in agricultural pursuits, for which from 8 to 12 dollars a month, and board, are given. The latter

also are the persons who are employed chiefly in the labouring work belonging to trades, the pay for which varies from one dollar to a dollar and a quarter per day.

"It is in the seaboard cities of the southern states, as Charleston, Mobile, Savannah, and New Orleans, or some of the interior places, as Natchez, Vicksburgh, and others up the great Mississippi, where the labourer is accustomed to receive the high rate of remuneration for his services so frequently alluded to by many writers, and which is too frequently taken by this class of persons as the standard for their general pay, an error which in fact it takes them but a very little time to discover. There, however, one and a half and two dollars are readily obtained, and, at particular times and certain seasons of the year, much more. All in this capacity therefore are enabled, with ordinary steadiness, and in spite also of the comparative dearness of most things in these parts of the United States, to save a good deal of money; but the climate is bad, and a labourer, exposed as he is so much to its vicissitudes, cannot long continue in active employment. With the greatest care his health soon becomes impared, and he is obliged almost invariably to return to the eastern or the north-western parts of the states to recruit it. Little, therefore, is gained in the end, unless with the most careful management. Moderate wages in the eastern states, and steady employment, which in most cases can be procured at least for the greater part of the year, are always to be preferred."

The manufactures of the United States are rapidly progressing in magnitude and in improved processes. According to the census taken in 1839-40, it appears there were at that time 1240 factories employed in the cotton trade alone, of which the largest number are situated, in Massachusetts 279, Rhode Island 209, Connecticut 116, New York 117, Pennsylvania 106. The entire number of spindles in these establishments is 2,284,681. Value of articles manufactured annually, 46,850,453 dollars. Number of persons employed, 72,119; and the capital invested, 51,102,359 dollars. Mr. Buckingham states, that:

"In 1815, America exported 2,800,000 dollars' worth of cotton goods. In 1826 and 1827, she exported 20,000 bales of her cotton manufactures round the Cape of Good Hope to India and China, and 300,000 bales to the markets of South America. But it is not in the cotton manufacture alone that America is advancing; in 1835, she had 17,000,000 of sheep and lambs; in 1838, 20,000,000, the mere wool of which, reckoning each fleece at 3lbs., would give no less a quantity of wool than 60,000,000lbs., the whole of which is manufactured there."

The same writer gives an account of the bleaching works and cotton mills at Providence, Rhode Island, which we extract as affording a striking contrast to the statements respecting the condition of our own manufacturing population Mr. Buckingham says:

"I was shown unreservedly, by one of the proprietors, through the entire works.

"The building in which the works are carried on is of great extent, standing on the edge of the open piece of water called the Cove, which lies opposite to the upper or north end of Providence. Capital invested, 250,000 dollars, and the number of men employed, 200. Unbleached cloths from all parts of the States are sent here to be bleached, beetled, &c., and finished.

"The reputation in which the domestic manufactures of America are held all along the coasts of South America, and in the islands of the Pacific, for their great strength and durability, as compared with English goods of the same class, is just like the estimation in which India muslin, calicoes, and chintzes were held in England, some years ago, as compared with Glasgow and Manchester goods; and both were well founded, because not only was great labour bestowed on their fabrication, but the best material was also used, and they were consequently rendered much more durable. The knowledge of this fact has set our tricksters to work, not to do away with taxation, that we may make as good an article, but fraudulently to put on the American marks, and in every other

way, save in quality, imitate their goods, that they may sell as American manufactured goods in the South American markets and in the islands of the Pacific

"The appearance of order, cleanliness, and comfort which reigned throughout the whole was very striking, and greater, I think, than would be found in any similar establishment in England.

"We next visited the cotton mills recently erected by a company of capitalists here, and now in full and profitable operation. I had seen most of the large cotton mills in Manchester, Bolton, Stockport, Oldham, and Preston, as well as in Glasgow, and was familiar to all the processes used in them; and I expected to find everything used in the American mills inferior to what I had seen in the English ones. I was surprised, however, to find this in all things equal, and in many superior, to any similar establishment I had seen at home.

"The edifice was brick, but not wearing that prison-like appearance as the most of the factories in England; in fact, it looked more like some government offices, and formed more of ornament than deformity to the part of the city in which it is erected.

"In the interior we were conducted over every floor, from the base to the attic, and saw all the operations, from the hoisting in the bales of raw cotton, to the last finish of the finest thread; as well as the department in which all the machinery used in the works is made and repaired: everything appeared to us in the highest possible order, and the works to be conducted with the greatest skill and attention. In the several rooms in which the people were at work, more attention appeared to be paid to cleanliness, neatness, and ornament, than in English mills; while the persons employed were all better dressed, and evidently in a condition of greater comfort, than the same class of factory operatives in England. There are employed, in the whole, about three hundred persons, two hundred of whom are men and one hundred women, with very few boys.

"The wages of the smiths, &c., employed in making the machinery average a dollar and a half a day, though many receive two dollars, and some more. The spinners average a dollar a day, and the overseers a dollar and a half. The women average half a dollar, and some three quarters, and the more skilful will get a dollar. There were very few married women at work, as it is thought discreditable to the husband that the wife should do anything but look after his domestic affairs, and attend to her children at home.

"The hours of work, exclusive of meals, are ten in the winter and eleven in summer; and as there are no very young children employed, the hours of labour are uniformly the same for all ages. Among the young girls of the factory the greater number of them were extremely pretty, and some were really beautiful; and all were as well dressed as milliners and mantua-makers in England.

"The greatest respect appeared to be paid to them by their employers, as well as by the overseers and others with whom they had to communicate; and this respect was the better secured by the females all working together in certain rooms, and the males in certain others, so as to ensure a general separation of the two sexes during their labour.

"I have reason to believe that the character and condition of this class of work people in America is greatly superior to that of the same class in Britain. For this there are a number of causes: one is the fact that the tariff of protecting duties enables the manufacturer to give better wages, and yet realize better profits than are made in England, out of which he can afford to bestow many ornaments and comforts which a more limited profit would oblige him to curtail. Another cause is, that the men and women are better educated, while children have more self-respect, are more temperate, more moral, and consequently more prudent.

"The result of this was, that these work people almost invariably did not draw the whole of their wages, but left a surplus in the hands of their employers till the year end, when they would draw very frequently a hundred dollars, and the women from sixty to seventy. These sums they invest at interest, and the accumulation of two or three years would enable young men to buy

themselves a house, another year to furnish it; when they would get married, when they would continue to pull together, one managing the income department, and the other the domestic, increasing in respectability and comfort, until, not unfrequently, the workman becomes a master on a small scale. Many who are now rich capitalists in Rhode Island, have risen from such a beginning as this.

"Only saw one pawnbroker's-shop in all Providence.

"The people appear generally to be more robust, ruddy, and healthy, than those of Boston and New York. The dryness of the sandy and gravelly soil, the excellence of the water for drinking, and the sheltered state of the town from bleak easterly winds, may all contribute to this; for the climate is more soft and more mild than it is in New England, generally, and neither the heats of summer nor the colds of winter are felt in such extremes at Providence as they are in the other cities of the north.

"Lowell is called the Manchester of America. Some thirty years ago, it was a desert; its forests echoed no sound but that of the cataract; and this Lowell now spins and manufactures forty thousand bales of cotton per annum. There is a concentrated water power, amounting to five thousand horse power, which equals one half of the water power of Great Britain."

These general statements might suffice to show that the general condition of the labouring-classes is far superior to that of the same class in this country. But we promised to show the relative value of wages, by showing what they will bring out of the market. The following data will perhaps enable the reader to form a sufficiently conclusive opinion on this head. It is the general, we might almost say the universal custom of the unmarried people, and very frequently of the married also, to live in boarding-houses. The following information on this subject, from Mr. Knight's "Guide" will be valuable:

"There are various rates of boarding in all places, but it would be useless here to refer to any but those which concern the working man, and, as the subject is of importance, it will be better to risk being charged with tediousness than deficiency of information. In any of the principal eastern cities he may meet with very good boarding for two dollars and a half, or 10s. 6d. sterling per week; but for three dollars or three dollars and a half, he can get first-rate fare at all the mechanics'-houses, which will suit him much better than those which have the reputation of being a step higher, and for which he would have to pay four or five dollars. At the higher class houses he would undoubtedly receive a greater share of attention, have better accommodation, and obtain some delicacies at table which it would be unreasonable to expect at the cheaper ones; but he certainly does not stand in need of the latter, and should remember he has to pay dearly for them. The medium-rate houses, therefore, are in every respect the best adapted for him; he will at those places get good substantial fare much better suited to him, and will, generally speaking, find just enough accommodation for his purposes.

"There are three meals in the day, and, at each meal, meats are provided—at least at mechanics' boarding-houses. Hot vegetables are also served up, as well for the first and last meals as at dinner. At breakfast, the meats of the previous day, if any be left, are hashed or rather minced together with the cold vegetables, and put on the table hot; pork or mutton chops, beef steaks, or sausages, occasionally salt mackerel, shad, and other fish, and that which is considered a great relish, if not a delicacy, by most native Americans—fried bullock's liver; new or rather smoking hot bread, and rolls and butter, with coffee, complete the service. At dinner, joints various, sometimes with fish, other times poultry; vegetables are in great variety, some of rather a novel kind to the foreigner, amongst which the most general and by no means the most inferior, so soon as accustomed to it, is the Carolina or sweet potatoe; also squash, a fruit-like vegetable, and boiled Indian corn, a downright delicacy when of proper growth; egg-plant, vegetable marrow, &c., the latter-named articles depending, of course, upon the summer season. Pies, puddings, and tarts of various kinds, are also invariably set on the table, and conclude the meal, and occasion-

ally coffee is supplied, but seldom anything else; never beer as a beverage. At tea, or supper rather—for both terms are used—the cold meats from dinner are served up, and, as a relish in meats, dried or smoked beef cut or rather shaved very thin, and eaten uncooked; salt fish, also, sweet cakes, sweetmeats, as marmalades, &c., stewed peaches, pears, and other fruits, new bread again, and tea instead of coffee, as at breakfast. At both the first and last, and indeed all meals, a plentiful supply of apple-sauce is mostly to be found, sometimes peach-sauce—made in the summer of fresh fruits, in the winter of dried. In the proper season, radishes, pepper-grass, onions, cucumbers, and at all meals during the whole of the year, boiled beet-root, plain or in vinegar.

"This is the customary fare at houses of this description; as before stated, some are much better than others, and if the mechanic fail in obtaining what is satisfactory at one place, it is really his own fault if he does not get it at another."

One great drawback to the enjoyment of these good things is the helter-skelter, hot haste in which they are disposed of. Almost as soon as things are served up, they are gone, and in general each person rises with the last mouthful; the stranger must of course follow the example. Another inconvenience is the want of domestic accommodation in the evenings; a place to while away time must be sought for in the tavern, or other places of public resort; and this, with washing, mending, &c., increases the sum total of the weekly expenditure. With all this, however, a considerable surplus remains in the hands of the young unmarried man. Housekeeping, by married people in the cities, is, in consequence of rent and other matters, nearly as high as at home, in similar circumstances; but in the country, of course this is materially lessened, and, in both cases, the wages received leave a surplus in the hands of the workman. "The Mechanic's and Labourer's Guide" has some statements on the situation in which a mechanic with a large family is placed, which we deem most important to be generally known. It states that:

"In America, whatever be the extent of a man's family, and whether girls or boys, they will not be found the very heavy burthen they too frequently are in old countries. Except in the difficulty of getting them over there, number will be no disadvantage, owing to the constant demand there is for their services. It is the custom to send children out to employment at the early age of nine or ten years, and very desirable situations, with fair remuneration, may readily be obtained for them. It is plain, therefore, that they are likely to be a benefit rather than an incumbrance to the parent, as soon as they are at all able to be employed. There may be said to exist also a prejudice in favour of "old country" children, the same as for adult help, particularly in the cases of females. In advertising for female aid, a customary plan upon most occasions is to specify that English or American would be preferred, or that none other need apply. Girls from the age of eleven and twelve are sought after as day-helps, either to nurse children or attend about house, getting from half a dollar to a dollar a week, and board; while the adult female help (there are no servants in America) will get from five to eight dollars a month, and every necessary. Girls are also employed in trades. In all employment which comes within the province of the needle, there is a great demand for them, notwithstanding their being already so numerous.

"These, therefore, are the prospects which the mechanic has before him for the one portion of his family; and now let us turn and see those which he has for the other. Boys, even at the early age of ten years, are fully able to provide for themselves, and thereby assist their parents—in short, are able to gain their livelihood, and it is customary for them to do so. There is a constant demand for them, and, as all minor as well as inferior labour is exceedingly well paid for in the United States, they get, by comparison at least with anything of the kind in Great Britain, highly remunerated. A boy of eleven or twelve years will get two dollars a week, no less being offered; if from fourteen to sixteen years, whether as an errand boy or assistant in general trades, three dollars; the object being, in all cases, to give sufficient for support. This is in fact the amount considered requisite for their boarding and other expenses. At mechanics'

boarding-houses, the proprietors make a reduction, generally about a third for youth, which, at these wages, leaves them a balance in hand of about a dollar; a sum quite sufficient for their clothes, pocket money, and other expenses.

"The mechanic whose family consists chiefly of boys, will find another very considerable advantage to result from his removal to the United States, in the settlement of them to trades. There he will have none of the difficulties so common in his own country to contend with, in the way of providing premiums necessary for them before they will be taken as apprentices, for none such, in fact, are required. The lad is in himself considered a premium, because from the very commencement of his servitude he is put to ready and profitable use—nothing is suffered to interfere so as to retard his advancement—no jealousy, no dread that he will learn his trade too quick or too well, and be ultimately injurious to his employer—he is set to work, to use an American expression, "right away;" and, as at first his remuneration does not exceed that which he would obtain in any other capacity, he must be, and indeed is, a decided advantage to his employer.

"The out-door plan of apprenticeship is the most general; the term of servitude, except in very particular cases, five years, and often, when the lad is rather old, for three years only. The salary—that is, to the out-door apprentice—in most trades commences at three dollars a-week, for the first year, with an advance of half a dollar for the two succeeding years, and one dollar each for the two last, making the amount five and six dollars for the most important and most expensive part of his time. In all cases the master either reserves a certain portion of the apprentice's wages, to be paid annually to the parents towards clothing him, or stipulates to become responsible for a sum, usually from thirty to fifty dollars, for such purpose, independent of wages altogether. Thus a provision for his apparel is effectually secured to him; and this invariable custom is, without doubt, the true cause why American youth are constantly met with so well dressed, and why they are always so strongly disposed to be so.

"The in-door apprentice is provided with boarding, lodging, the chief part of his washing, and his outer apparel, the latter being supplied by his master's own tailor, and the clothes generally speaking being as good as those which his master himself wears; but in neither case, whether as in or out-door apprentice, is he furnished with pocket-money. This deficiency, however, is amply supplied by the invariable practice on the part of the employer of permitting the apprentice to make as much over-time as he may think fit; and as he is paid according to the same rate of charge as the journeyman, so soon at least as he is capable of undertaking the work, it is no uncommon thing, if the apprentice be industriously inclined, to find himself in the receipt, for his over-time work, of half the amount of his weekly wages. This, it must be admitted, furnishes a great encouragement, and if put to a proper use, is likely to be of considerable service. Some will allow this extra money to accumulate in the hands of the employer, while the savings' banks present opportunities for the same purpose to others, many of whom, to their credit be it stated, being depositors of considerable amounts; and the money thus accumulated has often been the means of enabling numbers to commence business on their own account, so soon as their apprenticeship has expired.

"Task work for the apprentice is also customary in many trades, as soon as he is found to be sufficiently qualified in his business; all above a certain quantity being paid for as over-time work; thus giving an additional opportunity which both master and apprentice find their account in. In short, few things are omitted that will tend either to the encouragement of the apprentice, or further advancement of him in his business, the employer considering both inseparable from his own interest; there being no apprehension, as before stated, lest the lad should know too much for the future interest of the employer, no jealousy or distrust of him, nor any desire for keeping him to a distinct branch, that he may be made the most of for the time being; the apprentice is thoroughly instructed in his trade, and left to follow it when and how he may

think fit, when by right he is entitled to do so; and in this, as in other respects, many a useful lesson might be taken from the Americans by the artisans of other countries.

"It is tolerably plain, therefore, that in the important affair of placing his children to trades, the mechanic in the United States has opportunities and advantages immeasurably above those which he possesses in his own country. This is no light matter to take into consideration, and should not be without its due weight while forming an opinion of his prospects; indeed, it is a most important and satisfactory consideration for the comparatively needy man to reflect upon, with regard to providing for his family, that he is sure of meeting with trades for them, sure of doing so without any expense to himself, and sure of their obtaining satisfactory remuneration for their labour when their apprenticeships expire; so that from the moment they are put to trades they may be said to be entirely off his hands, and wholly independent of him, all care and anxiety respecting their future worldly welfare being so far completely at an end."

Of the inestimable privilege possessed by the mechanic in the free public schools, we have already spoken, and having thus laid before the working man some data to guide him in his investigations as to the best direction for the labour of himself and family, and its probable reward, we turn next to

CLIMATE, AND ITS EFFECTS ON HEALTH.

In this respect the comparison between Britain and America is not advantageous to the latter. The extreme heat of the summer and cold of the winter, together with the excessive variations of temperature in the same day, render the states comparatively unhealthy. It must not, however, be inferred from this, the settler encounters any very serious obstacle on this account. According to the best testimony—with care and temperance—immunity from disease and long life is in the power of each individual disposed to practise these virtues. On this head, perhaps the following data will suffice for the formation of a correct opinion.

A writer in the *Preston Chronicle*, under the signature of *An American Citizen*, whose letters display great personal experience, says:

"The climate in the southern countries is warm in the summer, and cold in the winter; the thermometer, some days, ranging up to ninety-three degrees, and in winter down as low as thirteen degrees below zero; either extreme being of short duration, seldom exceeding two or three days. During a residence of more than twenty years, I have never heard the English emigrant complain of the climate. For myself, though raised in a workshop, during the time I was farming, and that was for more than fifteen years, I seldom saw cause to complain of either. Owing to the great length of our summers, winter not setting in until after the middle of December, we have much less provision to make for our stock, which gives us a great advantage over more northern situations. Man wants less clothing and fuel, and all the necessaries of life are much more easily obtained than in more northern climates. The days in the southern part of the state are neither so long nor so short as in England, the longest day being not more than fourteen hours thirty-eight minutes, and the shortest about eleven hours twenty-two minutes—the sun rising at forty-one minutes after four, and setting at twenty-one minutes past seven in summer; and in winter, rising at nineteen minutes past seven, and setting at forty-one minutes past four, making the average length of the day thirteen hours."

Buckingham gives the following account of the climate of the western portion of New York, Rochester, Buffalo, and of America generally:

"The climate of this portion of the state of New York is remarkable for being more temperate than on the eastern portion bordering on the sea. There are, no doubt, everywhere throughout the continent of America, very hot summers and extremely cold winters; but the degree of intensity is less here than elsewhere in the same parallel latitude. President Dwight, of New England, who bestowed much attention to this subject, entertained an opinion, that in this country, and he thought in most others, there was a circuit of seasons, which

came in periods of ten or fifteen years; that is, there were ten or fifteen warm summers, and then as many cool ones, and then the same course of winters. He considers the mildness of temperature of the western part of New York to be caused by the near approach to the great lakes. Our own experience, as well as the opinions of all whom we consulted on the subject of the difference of temperature between this part and the cities of Albany and New York, corroborate the accuracy of the views taken by President Dwight; for both at Buffalo and Rochester, the heat of the month of August was five or six degrees less, by the thermometer, than at New York or Albany at the same period of time; while the freshness of the air from Lakes Erie and Ontario made the difference in the feeling of heat at least ten degrees less; that is, with the thermometer at eighty, in either of these places, persons would feel no more inconvenience from that than they would at Philadelphia with the thermometer at seventy degrees. And in each of the towns of Buffalo and Rochester, throughout the mouth of August, we slept under a blanket, and found it comfortable, while in all the sea-bordered cities, and from New York to Saratoga, during the whole of June and July, we found a single sheet as much as we could bear, with all the windows open; and here a sheet, blanket, and counterpane were not found too much. A very characteristic extract of a letter is preserved from Governor Morris to a friend of his in England, who had often urged him to come over and reside in some part of Britain—which the former had always resisted, but at length finding it necessary to support his refusal by adequate reasons, he says to his friend, 'Compare the uninterrupted warmth and splendour of America, from the first day of May to the last day of September, and her autumn truly celestial, with your shivering June, July, August, sometimes warm, but often wet, your uncertain September, your gloomy October, and your detestable November—compare these things, and then say how a man who prizes the charms of nature can think of making the exchange. If you pass one autumn with us, you would not give it for the best six months to be found in any other country, unless, indeed, you were to get tired of fine weather.' It is undoubtedly true, that the climate of America, as far as we have yet experienced it—and we have passed very nearly through an entire year—is much more pleasurable to the sight and feelings than the climate of England; whether it be as favourable to health and longevity may be doubted, although there are other circumstances, and particularly that of the diet and mode of life among the Americans, which may sufficiently account for their inferior health, without regarding the agency of the climate as in any degree contributing to its deterioration. But the brightness of the American winters, with a brilliant and glowing sun beaming from a cloudless sky, while the surface of the earth is covered with snow, and the gay and lively equipage of the sleigh, with the warm buffalo-skin of the closely-wrapped party, and the jingling bells of the delighted horses as they glide along the streets and roads, makes the season far more cheerful than a winter ever is in England.

"The spring is shorter; for summer seems to burst at once upon us, and when it comes, the full and gorgeous foliage of the woods and the exuberant luxuriance of the fields give an idea of abundance and fertility which is delightful. The autumn, however, is the most delightful season; and the very finest days of an English September or October are inferior, in the richness and glow of their mellow atmosphere, to the weather of these two months in America, while the sunsets of the autumn surpass those even of Italy and Greece."

Judge Hall, speaking of the healthiness of the western states, says: "Facts of such grave import as health or no health should not be considered as settled by that common rumour whose want of veracity is so notorious. The result of patient and careful investigation by competent men of science and experience will hereafter decide these points, and will, in our opinion, show that the current reports in relation to these matters have been in direct opposition to the truth. When we speak of the present advantages and future greatness of the west, it is proper that we should discriminate, so as not to deceive those who have not the means of judging for themselves. The climate differs little from corresponding

latitudes in the United States. So far as health is concerned, we suppose the advantage to be on our side of the mountains [the western side of the Alleghany], while in reference to vegetation there is no observable difference."

Cobbett, in his "Year's Residence in America," says on this subject: "Of health I have not yet spoken; and though it will be a subject of remark in another part of my work, it is a matter of too deep interest to be wholly passed over here. In the first place, as to *myself*, I have always had excellent health; but during a year in England, I used to have a *cold* or two, a trifling sore throat, or something in that way. *Here* I have neither, though I was two months of the winter travelling about, and sleeping in different beds. My family have been more healthy than in England, though, indeed, there has seldom been any serious illness in it. We have had but *one visit from any doctor*. Thus much for the present on this subject. I said, in the second "Register" I sent home, that this climate was *not so good as that of England*. Experience, observation, a careful attention to real facts, have convinced me that it is, *upon the whole*, a better climate." And in his "Emigrant's Guide," after speaking at some length respecting the nature and effect of the seasons on man and vegetation, he says: "I have said frequently that I never knew the want of health in America..... Mr. Brissot, after a very minute inquiry and comparison, ascertained that people once grown up lived longer in the United States than in France." Like all other writers on this subject, Cobbett earnestly warns the emigrant against intemperance, as the greatest enemy to health.

The author of the "Mechanic's and Labourer's Guide" observes: "The constitution of man is capable, with a proper degree of caution, of adapting itself to any climate; and the natives of no country possess this faculty in a greater degree than those of Great Britain. The sudden atmospheric changes for which their own country is so remarkable, and to which they have been from birth inured, render them less subject to attack from that cause, than the natives of less changeable climates. The variations they meet with on the voyage, sufficient to make, for a time, even a settled extreme desirable, assist in qualifying them more effectually to withstand the intensity of heat and cold they have to encounter, and, together with their originally-vigorous constitution, enable them to meet both as well, to say the least, as the most robust of the natives. When illness therefore occurs upon or shortly after arrival, it is probably much more often the result of indiscretion than of mere change of climate."

Still, however, with all allowances, it must in candour be stated, that much more care and expense is requisite to ensure permanent good health in the United States than in this country. And if climate be considered as a component of real comfort, or the emigrant's constitution be so weak as to be easily affected by this circumstance, then the inconvenience and outlay which must arise from this source must be taken into consideration, as one item of the cost at which the substantial advantages otherwise resulting from emigration to the States are to be secured.

SHIPPING, PROVISION FOR THE VOYAGE, AND GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS.

Under this head we cannot do better than present directions from the best authorities. The admirable "Guide" published by Mr. Knight, to which we have already so frequently referred, and which should be in the possession of every emigrant who can afford its price (4s.), in consequence of its full and explicit instructions, both as to the best mode of reaching the States, and the conduct proper during a residence in them, contains very full information on the matter immediately before us. We select the following as likely to be generally useful to the reader:

"In taking passage for the voyage, the principal things to consider are, the quality of the vessel, its conveniences, punctuality, and charge. These differ very considerably in most of the passage-ships; but for speed and safety, convenience, and depend ence on the time of sailing, the London and Liverpool line of packets are much superior, and the advantages they possess in so high a degree, and the additional expense of travelling by them is so trifling, as to secure

a preference over all other modes of conveyance. If, therefore, the mechanic or other person journeying to the United States be at any reasonable distance from these ports, or have but little encumbrance in the way of baggage, &c., and can avail himself of any of the cheap steamboat or railroad conveyances to these places, there should be no hesitation in deciding upon these vessels in preference to any others.*

"The London and the Liverpool 'Line Packets,' as they are termed, are all first-class, and now mostly new ships, of six hundred and seven hundred and fifty tons burden, seven or eight feet between decks, and built for sailing rather than for burden. The London line consists of twelve vessels; the Liverpool various lines, nearly double that number: and the arrangements are such as to leave a lapse of but two or three days between their times of starting from the one place or the other. They generally have excellent crews, and invariably the most skilful and experienced officers and commanders. The old vessels in these lines are rapidly giving place to new ones: in the London line, with two or three exceptions, they are all new ships, and with every new one additional comfort and convenience of the passenger is studied. It is advisable, therefore, if from this cause only, to select, if possible, one of the recently-built vessels; but there are other reasons for this selection: they are cleaner—a most important matter—more free from unpleasant smell arising from bilge-water, &c.; while their commanders invariably do their best to make quick passages, in order to establish the reputation of their vessels.

"The passage-money in the steerage (which, between decks, is the more forward part of the ship, and the part which, from motives of economy, the mechanic, as a single man, would choose) is five pounds, and five shillings hospital-dues or port-commutation money. This provides him with half a berth, each berth or bunk containing sleeping-room for two persons; if he take the whole berth, the amount will be double. He must, therefore, have a companion; and before selecting a berth, it may be as well for him to contrive to ascertain who is or who is likely to be the joint tenant of it, that he may select as respectable a fellow-occupant as possible. This arrangement is, in most cases, left entirely to his own discretion; and if he make a disagreeable choice, he certainly has no one to blame but himself. To the single man, however, it may be of slight importance with whom, in most cases, he has to associate for the time being; but to the married man, with perhaps a young and recently-wedded wife, the case is very different. There are two tiers of berths, upper and lower; and it is of great consequence to him that he should know who are likely to be in the same room, as it were, with him, as his fellow-lodgers. Both parties can, if they choose, make themselves very agreeable to each other, and, on the contrary, equally disagreeable. Of course it need not be added, that it is to the interest of all to cultivate a good understanding with each other.

"In all trading, transient, or other passage-vessels, the charges may be somewhat less—a saving, perhaps, of twenty or thirty shillings, seldom more, in those sailing from any of the English ports: this too, in many cases, is the sole inducement for choosing them. But the preference is a very mistaken one; for it is not in the trifling difference in the passage-money that a saving can be effected, but by the shortness of the voyage; and it must be obvious to all, that none of these vessels, built, as they mostly have been, for trading purposes, indifferently equipped, and clumsy of model, can make way like those which are specially constructed for sailing only. In short, all these vessels, with the exception of some of the transient ones which have been 'Liners,' and, although old, still retain their sailing qualities, are two, three, and even five weeks longer on their passage than the packet-ships. The proprietors and the captains, also, of the whole of them, are utterly regardless of anything like punctuality in their time of sailing—stopping for passengers, in order to make up a full number, just as long as they think proper, and frequently detaining those whom they first

* Apply to Phillipps, Tiplady and Co., 9, Royal Exchange Buildings, London; and Messrs. Harnden and Co., Liverpool.

engage with from one to three weeks beyond the time appointed, until their small stock of money becomes exhausted, and at least one-third of their provisions are consumed, while the packet-ships almost invariably sail to the day, or never exceed the day afterwards. In short, the whole management and arrangement of the London and Liverpool line-vessels leave but little for their passengers to desire; and that little stands a fair chance of being, before long, fully supplied.

"In preparing necessaries for the voyage, it will be prudent, in the way of provisioning, to lay in a sufficient supply for seven or eight weeks—certainly not less than for seven. Even the fleetest of the packet-ships frequently approach to near this time; but if the passage be taken in a transient or trading vessel, then it becomes necessary to provide for nine or ten. The outward is always more tardy than the homewaad voyage, owing to a prevalence, at most seasons, of the year, of south-west winds, but particularly during the summer months. The quickest passages are made, both ways, in the spring and fall of the year; and the average of the outward-bound voyage, for the months of March and April, is somewhere about thirty-four days; for September, October, and November, thirty-one. This is by the packets from the port of Liverpool; if from London, some few days more must be added thereto. The remaining months, with the exception of May and December, when the longest passages take place, will be from seven to ten days more. We occasionally hear of the voyage being made in a much shorter time than is here stated, and too frequently we are disposed to confide in the flattering prospect ourselves; but the voyager may place full reliance upon the above statement, as being the correct average for some years.

"It will be useless to particularise every article of provision with which the passenger should be furnished, or give any statement respecting the quantity of the same, as, in the latter case, much will depend upon the strength of appetite, of which the individual himself must be the best judge, and of course the best qualified to calculate how much will be requisite for the time given; and with regard to the variety, it may be as well, perhaps, for him to consult his own peculiar taste in some few things, and afterwards leave the bulk to some 'ship-store' supplier at the place of his embarkation, who will likewise put them up in a proper manner—premising, however, these gentry take good care never to undertake the quantity which will be necessary, and that nothing should be packed without the passenger's personal supervision.

"But there are some things which are requisites, and essential ones also, and not always paid sufficient attention to, on the part either of the voyager or the supplier, and others which would materially conduce to his comfort, and even, perhaps, his health, which are omitted altogether. This, it must be acknowledged, arises, in most cases, from an unconsciousness either of their existence or their utility, and here it is that the writer offers the benefit of his own experience. They consist of the following articles, most of which can be obtained at a very trifling additional expense, while some can very properly be substituted for those of more common use, and therefore occasion no extra expense whatever:

"Acids of all descriptions—that is, those used at table—are not only highly serviceable at sea, but particularly grateful also to the palate. Of vinegar, therefore, as the most common, there should be an ample store; pickles likewise of various descriptions; but above all, lemons or the juice of them. For this kind of acid there can be no proper substitute: it counteracts the effects of salt diet, allays sea-sickness, and forms occasionally a very refreshing and invigorating beverage. About two or three dozen of these will be found sufficient, which, if obtained fresh and wrapped separately in paper, will keep good throughout the voyage. Two or three pounds of figs, also, should be taken, to be used medicinally, and a box or two of soda-water powders. A small hamper of porter likewise, and a bottle or two of spirits, not omitting a little brandy. Oatmeal or groats form a very nourishing article of diet: about three quarts may be provided of the former, or as many pounds of the latter; either will

make occasionally a very agreeable kind of supper eaten with molasses,* some of which should always be taken out as an admirable relish to rice and other puddings, being far better than any other kind of sweetening. A few good keeping apples, and some oranges also, managed in the same manner as directed for the lemons, may be provided; and of vegetables, besides the potatoes supplied with the stores, onions, carrots, and turnips—which will keep nearly the whole of the time—are highly serviceable for soups, &c. Two or three pounds of portable soup, and about the same quantity of preserved meats, should be taken, if the voyager's means will permit.

"In place of hard bread or biscuits, for which, in most cases, there is soon a disrelish, loaf-bread should be substituted, prepared in the following manner: For immediate use, a few *stale loaves* may be re-baked—that is, put a second time in the oven, in order to take out all the moisture from them, and in this state they will keep good for at least a fortnight; but to last well for a longer period, the loaf must be cut up into thin slices, and toasted slowly on both sides, until they become perfectly dry—and then let them stand separately on end until perfectly cold. If these be kept in a dry place they will continue in a good state for months; and all that is necessary previous to use is to moisten them with a little water, and hold them a short time before the fire, or else immerse them in any hot liquid, as tea, soup, &c. If bread thus prepared be put up in a tin box with a tight-fitting lid or cover, and when used treated as directed, it will be almost impossible to distinguish any difference between a toast of this description and one from a loaf only a day or two old.

"The voyager, therefore, will not be backward in perceiving the advantage of furnishing himself with an ample stock of this important necessary, which, if prepared agreeably to the directions given, will, together with some other of the requisites named, but more particularly the portable meats and soups, so materially lessen his wants and conduce to his comforts, that he will hardly feel the inconveniences and privations with regard to diet otherwise so invariably attendant on a lengthened voyage; and this, too, be it remembered, with the slightest possible addition to his expense or his trouble.

"Some articles for use are required, but not many: tin ware is to be preferred, and for the most obvious of reasons—it is less liable to accident and damage, and will, generally speaking, be serviceable after the voyage, or fetch again nearly the same money it cost. A host of things of this description are generally recommended, and much money uselessly spent; but if the voyager follow the directions hereafter given in respect to his management with the cook of the vessel, about half-a-dozen articles will be quite as many as he will require. The following is a list of them:—A water-can to hold about a gallon, being the quantity per diem to which each individual is limited; a wash basin, baking dish, a panikin to hold about a pint, a pot to hang on the stove for heating water, and a tin-plate for meals, to which may be added a tin-cannister or two for groceries, as being the best adapted for the purpose; these, with a knife and fork, table and tea-spoon, will be the sum total of all that is required. All tin ware, as well, in fact, as most other things frequently laid out of hand, should be marked so as to be identified. Somehow or other, on ship-board, as elsewhere, things will stray away, and this is often the only means by which they can be recovered. Boxes should all have locks, they should be kept locked, too, after use, and keys never left in them; it is little better than a waste of words to talk of things when once gone by, the better way, by far, is to take a little extra care of them.

"On no occasion whatever should the voyager be improvident of his stock, he knows not how long he may be dependent on it, the very same cause, indeed, which renders him deficient, viz. protraction of the voyage, has the same effect upon all his fellow-passengers, though perhaps, from their having been more careful, not exactly in the same degree. Whatever, therefore, he may stand in need of, even if it can be procured, will have to be paid for in proportion to its scarcity, and this, too, associated with the unpleasant reflections,

* American term for treacle.

that with better management both the expense and the privation might wholly have been avoided.

"Stock, baggage, &c., should be divided as little as possible, not only on the score of general convenience, but as a matter of economy, for the dock dues or charges are upon each separate package. The larger the package the more secure and easily looked after also, but none should be heavier than can be managed by a couple of persons. One large chest for provisions is better than two or three smaller ones; it keeps things more together, answers likewise as a table, and will be found otherwise convenient when fixed by the side of the berth, which is always the best place for it.

"Most of the trouble and inconvenience attending the preparing and the cooking of food may he avoided by a judicious arrangement with the cook of the vessel, who, for the recompense of about half-a-sovereign, will undertake the chief portion of it. The head cook is the person to treat with for this purpose. Such an arrangement secures the passenger on all occasions, also, the best attention to his wants and wishes, puts in his way many an acceptable relish which, the eye seeing, the stomach long for—a fact very well known to all who have undertaken a long sea voyage, and which could not otherwise be obtained; in short, on all matters depending upon this most important personage on board a vessel, it gives to the party having such understanding with him opportunities and advantages which others who may neglect it cannot possess. The sum, it must be confessed, seems rather large as a gift to an individual, but it will be found there is no loss in the end—indeed, the reverse rather, for the greater part of the cooking being thus got rid of, so many utensils less are required, that the amount bestowed is absolutely made up by the saving on the non-purchase of them. There should be no hesitation, therefore, in adopting a plan which may be said to entail no expenses, and which will certainly produce so much advantage. The better way in doing so, is to give about half the amount at the time of his arrangement, and pledging to the remainder upon arrival, conditions which are perfectly satisfactory.

"It is advisable on all accounts to keep upon good terms with the officers and seamen of the vessel. Both can render things extremely uncomfortable to a passenger who chances to make himself obnoxious to them, and they are never backward in doing so. With the latter, a judicious present of a glass of grog in bad, or, as they themselves call it, dirty weather, is not lost; some tobacco also, chewing as well as smoking, given in small quantities to two or three who may, as is usually the case, be the select among them, is very acceptable, particularly in the outward-bound voyage, the passage of which is always so much longer, and when, owing to the increased charge for the article in England, their stock is never so ample, and they are of course liable to run short.

"Be no way extravagant with regard to clothes during the voyage, which is far too common an occurrence with most persons. Let the mechanic keep in mind that he is going where every article of his wearing apparel will be additionally valuable. Almost anything will do to wear on ship-board—whatever is used is fit for no other purpose afterwards. Dirt and grease, tar, salt water, &c. will spoil anything good; in short, the better way is to use those things only for which there is no care, and which can be wholly cast aside upon leaving the vessel. This provides also for future cleanliness, by no means an unimportant thing to look at; and there is no answering for it as a certainty, while any of the old ship-clothing is in wear. Close-fitting clothes instead of loose-hanging clothes are the best. A good and cheap dress for ship-board is a dark-coloured thick Guernsey frock or over-all, any sort of pantaloons, a low crowned hat, or rather a cap in preference (for a hat is spoiled instantly), and thick-soled boots or shoes; for, with regard to the latter, as it is advisable to keep as much as possible upon deck, in wet weather, or even from the daily washing of it, lighter ones soon get wet through, give colds, and make the whole person uncomfortable."

The writer, under the signature of *An American Citizen*, from whom we

have previously quoted, has the following instructions to emigrants, in his valuable letters:

"If it be the intention of the emigrants to proceed to the western part of the United States, I would advise them to go by the way of New Orleans: the expense is much less, and there are fewer difficulties to contend with than in any other route. On their arrival in New Orleans, they can leave their families aboard the ship until they have made choice of a steamboat to convey them up the Mississippi: this can be accomplished in a few hours. The distance from the ship-landing to the steamboat-landing is little more than a mile. By going by the way of New Orleans, they will be better able to take more heavy luggage. No charge will be made by the ship or steamboat for luggage. Families leaving this country ought to start not later than the latter part of March. If they cannot get off by that time, they had better wait until the latter part of August, or the beginning of September, before they start from here. Should there have been a sickly season, the sickliness will have entirely disappeared before the vessel can arrive there. It may be asked by some, Why cannot we sail from here in May, June, or July? Because it is probable that the Mississippi river may be too low for the larger class of steamboats to navigate it. When the river gets low, smaller boats then ply—their charges are much higher, and there is much less of comfort; also, it is not prudent for emigrants to be in those southern latitudes during the hot months. Should the emigrants have to choose the fall season, owing to their not being able to accomplish their transit before, and be rather short of cash, they are sure, if they wish it, to be able to obtain plenty of employment for themselves and families in New Orleans, with better wages than are given in any other part of the union. But mark, I advise them to leave early in the spring, and to ascend the river, so as to be in time either to make a crop for themselves, or to assist others in making theirs—and also to avoid the summer in New Orleans. I have known many families that have come by this route, and have never heard one of them complain of it.

"The probable expense of a passage to New Orleans, for a man, his wife, and four children, water included, I think would be about £12. The rule with the New York packet-line is to reckon two children as equal to one adult. The price from New Orleans to Louisville, on the Ohio river, or to St. Louis, on the Mississippi, for the same number of persons, will be under £4, luggage included.

"St. Louis is about eleven hundred and eighty miles from New Orleans, and Louisville above thirteen hundred miles. They generally charge the same price for any of the intermediate ports on the Mississippi that are above the mouth of the Ohio and below St. Louis, or for any of the ports that are on the Ohio and below Louisville. In making a bargain with the captain of the steamboat, if your intention is to stop short of St. Louis or Louisville, he may perhaps take a trifle less. You must make your bargain: they invariably take much less than they ask, and more especially if there are many boats in port. Be sure you take a boat that is going as far or beyond your place of debarkation. Should you be careless, and not attend to this, it will cost you much more, and be attended with considerable trouble. Endeavour to get some knowledge of the various landing-places on the river, so that you may not be deceived in engaging for the port to which you are bound. Your destination will be some place above the mouth of the Ohio, either up that river or up the Mississippi. When you get to the mouth of the Ohio, the first state that presents itself on the left-hand side will be Illinois.

"It will take about seven or eight days to ascend the river, either to Louisville or St. Louis. You will have to find your own provisions, the boat finding you plenty of wood for cooking purposes. There will be no occasion to furnish provisions for the whole voyage, because at almost all the towns at which the boats stops, either to discharge freight or take it in, there will be an opportunity of purchasing whatever you may want. Numbers of passengers will be found on board, who, having brought the produce of their farms for sale to New Orleans, are returning to their distant homes, who will give you every

information on this subject. In all cases, wherever you may be, avoid sporting what little money you may have; it is generally the best plan to let the female part of your family have it secured about their persons; do not keep it in your boxes or trunks. Many give up their money to the clerk of the boat for safe keeping: they generally charge a small per-centage for their trouble. Always bear in mind, before you spend a sovereign, how much land it will purchase when you get to the end of your journey.

"The emigrant, on landing at any of the towns on the Ohio river, if he has a family, had better engage a lodging for his family immediately, or go into some cheap boarding-house. His next object will be, if he intends to farm, or to labour on a farm, to get into the country as soon as he can; for he will there find everything much cheaper, and have a better opportunity of becoming acquainted with the quality and the local advantages of the land. Should the emigrant be possessed of a few pounds, I would advise him to be in no hurry in making choice of land. He had better hire a small farm for a season than make too hasty a purchase; by so doing, he will be better able to know the quality and eligibility of the land. The smallest quantity of land sold by the government is forty acres: this can be purchased for about £10 6s. Those who have the means will find it to their advantage to purchase improved farms: they can be purchased generally for less than their improvements cost. Make no purchase but what you can pay for. Be sure not to run in debt with the calculation of paying the purchase-money by the produce of the farm, without your family is large. This is a rock upon which many are wrecked. I have seen many calculations made of the expense of clearing, and the cultivation of farms, with the amount and price of the produce from that cultivation, and the difference showing that it was a very profitable investment. All this looks very pretty on paper; but many find it, to their sorrow, confoundedly wrong in practice. I would say to all emigrants, Buy no more land than you can comfortably pay for, and leave a sufficiency to purchase a few of the necessaries of life. If the emigrant wants a milch cow, or breeding sow, or provisions for his family, he will be able to obtain the whole by his own labour, or by that of his family. It has been asked, Are there any difficulties relative to the titles to land? The titles to land purchased of the general government are indisputable. There is no difficulty in ascertaining the validity of the title to any piece of land offered for sale by individuals. All that the emigrant has to require from the seller is the clerk and recorder's certificate, which will show in what state the land is held by the seller. There are a clerk and recorder in every county, whose books are open to the inspection of any individual during office-hours, that is, from nine a.m. to three p.m. every day. His certificate completely sets the matter at rest. I would say, Let all those who look to labour as the basis of independence go to the western states, where labour is high, and provisions cheap. This applies equally to the mechanic and the farmer; both are there well paid. The towns on the Ohio river are rapidly improving, and consequently the farms in the neighbourhood of those towns are, and must ever be, more valuable than those situated far in the interior. It is probable that if even the western country becomes a manufacturing one, that the principal manufactories will be situated on the borders of the Ohio. It possesses those qualifications that few countries can boast of. Here are cotton, silk (if cultivated), iron, lead, coal, &c., in the greatest abundance. Is not this a *bonus* for manufacturing, and that on the spot? Though wages are high, provisions are exceedingly low. There is plenty of work, and that well paid for. Labour is the thing most required in the west: few are able to avail themselves of the richness of the country, for the want of labour. There would be thousands of acres of land more in cultivation, if labourers could be found. The great drawback to the west is, that labourers have become proprietors of land in fee-simple so quickly, that, instead of labouring for others, they wish to hire others to labour for them. It is not in any particular district that this want is felt, but all over the western states. If emigrants could only muster a sufficiency of means to take them to the west, they need not be under any dread of obtaining plenty of

work for themselves and all their family. I never knew a man who was willing to work, in want of it. The man is blessed, indeed, who has a large industrious family: he may consider himself rich when he gets there. I could quote instances in abundance, of poor families settling there, who are now in affluent circumstances.

"In the purchase of land, the deed that transfers the right of property from the general government to the individual purchasing is very simple. It is contained on a piece of parchment not less than half a sheet of letter-paper, with the date, the locality of the land, the purchaser's name, and then subscribed by the president of the United States, and the agent of the general land-office. This is given free of all expense, and may be transferred by the purchaser to any other person without the aid of a lawyer, or that of stamped paper."

We append the following information, as likely to prove useful:

ROUTE FROM NEW YORK TO PITTSBURGH, BY THE RAILROAD AND CANAL.

	Miles.
From New York to Philadelphia by railroad	96
Philadelphia to Harrisburg, by railroad	119
BY CANAL PACKETS TO	
Juniata River	15
Millerstown	17
Mifflin	17
Lewiston	13
Waynesburg	14
Hamiltonville	11
Huntingdon	7
Petersburgh	8
Alexandria	23
Frankstown and Holidaysburgh	9
THENCE, BY RAILROAD ACROSS THE MOUNTAI TO	
Johnstown	38
BY CANAL TO	
Blairsville	35
Saltzburgh	18
Warren	12
Alleghany River	16
Pittsburgh	28

Total from New York to Pittsburgh, 490 miles.

The following Table of Distances between Pittsburgh and New Orleans, and the Rates of Passage, may be depended on as being substantially correct. The prices depend at all times upon the number of boats in port, and the abundance or scarcity of passengers, but in ordinary times they will be found correct.

From Pittsburgh to	Miles.		Cabin found		Deck.		From Pittsburgh to	Miles.		Cabin found		Deck.	
Economy	18		$ 75		$ 25		Madison, Ia	20	582	12	00	3	00
Beaver	12	30	1	50		50	Westport, Ky	22	604	12	50	3	12
Wellsville, O	20	50	1	50		50	Louisville, Ky	28	632	13	00	3	25
Steubenville, O	23	73	2	00		50	Rome, Ia	100	732	20	00	5	00
Wellsburgh, Va	7	80	2	25		56	Troy, Ia	35	767	20	50	5	12
Wheeling, Va	16	96	3	00		75	Yellow Banks, Ky	30	797	21	00	5	25
Marietta, O	84	180	5	00	1	25	Evansville, Ia	50	847	22	00	5	50
Parkersburgh, Va	12	192	6	00	1	50	Henderson, Ky	12	859	22	00	5	50
Point Pleasant, Va (mth of Kanhawa river)	80	272	8	00	2	00	Shawneetown, Ill	25	914	23	00	5	75
Gallipolis, O	4	276	8	00	2	00	Smithfield (mouth of the Cumberland river)	65	979	25	00	6	25
Guyandotte, V	36	312	8	50	2	12	Mouth of the Ohio river	65	1044	26	00	6	50
Portsmouth, O	55	367	9	00	2	25	New Madrid, Mo	75	1119	28	00	7	00
Maysville, Ky	50	417	10	00	2	50	Memphis, Tenn	150	1269	35	00	8	75
Ripley, O	12	429	10	00	2	50	Helena, Ark	85	1354	38	00	9	50
Cincinnati, O	53	482	12	00	3	00	Vicksburgh, Miss	300	1654	40	00	10	00
Port William (mouth of Kentucky river)	80	562	12	00	3	00	Natchez, Miss	110	1764	42	00	10	50
							New Orleans	300	2064	45	00	11	25

The above rates of cabin-passage include board. Deck-passengers find themselves.

"The deck is covered, and contains berths; but it is a very undesirable way of travelling. The passage to Louisville is generally performed in two days and a half, and to New Orleans, from eight to ten; returning, nearly double the time. The ordinary speed of the boats is twelve miles an hour down the river, and six up.

"Where large parties apply together for passage, or where emigrating families apply, a considerable reduction is often made. We will mention the case of a family from Maryland, who took passage on the 27th inst., at one in point, and as furnishing emigrants with some information they may like to hear. The family consisted of fifteen persons (nine adults, and six children), five of whom were slaves. There were also three horses, a wagon, and a wagon-load of baggage. They wished a passage to St. Louis, and on making application to

the master of the only boat in port on their arrival here, were told that the fare would be 10 dollars for each adult, in the cabin, 6 for deck-passage, 14 for each horse (the owner finding them), and the usual rates of freight for the baggage; or, to lump the whole, 250 dollars. Rather than pay this, the head of the family preferred waiting awhile. He did so, and in three days effected a bargain for 160 dollars for the family, embracing six cabin passengers (with the servant), and eight deck ditto, together with three horses, waggons and baggage—the deck-passengers and horses to be found by the emigrant."

DISTANCES ON THE UPPER MISSISSIPPI.

	Miles.	
Missouri river	18	
Alton, Ill.	6	24
Hamburgh	15	39
Clarksville, M.	60	99
Louisiana	12	111
Hannibal	30	141
Marion City	10	151
Quincy, Ill.	10	161
La Grange, Mo.	12	173
Tully	8	181
Warsaw, Ill. near Fort Edward	20	201
Mouth of Des Moines River	2	203
Keokuk, Iowa	1	204
Commerce, Ill. (head of Des Moines rapids)	18	222
Fort Madison	10	232
Burlington, Iowa	20	252
Yellow Banks, Ill.	15	267
New Boston, Ill. (opposite the mouth of the Iowa river)	15	282
Iowa (near the mouth of Pine river)	35	317
Rockport, Ill. (near the mouth of Rock river)	20	337
Montevideo, Iowa	4	331
Stephenson, Ill.	5	336
Davenport, Iowa (opposite Rock Island, Ill.)	1	337
Canaan, Ill.	18	355
New Philadelphia, Iowa	40	395
Savana, Ill.	20	415
Smithville	10	425
Bellevue, Iowa	6	431
Fever river, Ill.	6	437
Galena	18	445
Dubuque, Iowa	39	475
Cassville, Wis.	30	505
Prairie La Porte	8	513
Prairie du Chien	22	538
Falls of St. Anthony	265	800

The price of cabin passage on this route may be calculated at about three cents per mile for long distances, and four cents for short ones. Deck passengers not far from one cent per mile.

FROM NEW YORK TO MONTREAL, CANADA.

	Miles.	
Albany (steamboat)	145	
Saratoga Springs *via* Schenectady (railroad)	36½	181½
Whitehall (stage and canal)	36½	218
Ticonderoga (steamboat)	24	244
Crown Point ditto	15	257
Basin Harbour ditto	12	269
Essex (steamboat)	12	281
Burlington ditto	14	295
Port Kent ditto	11	306
Plattsburgh ditto	15	321
Rouse's Point ditto	27	348
St. John's ditto	22	370
La Prairie (railroad)	18	388
Montreal (steamboat)	9	397

LAKE ERIE AND UPPER LAKE STEAMBOATS.—PRICES OF PASSAGE ON LAKE ERIE.

	Cabin Pas.		Steerage	
From BUFFALO to	$	c.	$	c.
Erie	3	00	2	00
Conneaut and Ashtabula	4	00	2	00
Fairport, Cleveland	5	00	2	50
Black River, Huron, Sandusky	6	00	3	00
Maumee River, Monroe, Detroit	7	00	3	00
ERIE to				
Conneaut and Ashtabula	1	50	1	00
Fairport	3	00	1	50
Cleveland	3	00	2	00
Huron, Sandusky	4	50	2	50
Toledo, Detroit	5	00	3	00
ASHTABULA to				
Grand River	1	50	1	00
Cleveland	2	00	1	50
Huron, Sandusky	3	50	2	00
Maumee, Detroit	4	50	2	50
GRAND RIVER to				
Cleveland	1	50	1	00
Huron, Sandusky	3	00	2	00
Maumee, Detroit	4	00	2	50
CLEVELAND to				
Huron, Sandusky	2	00	1	00
Maumee, Detroit	3	00	2	00
HURON to Maumee, Detroit	2	50	1	50
SANDUSKY to Maumee, Detroit	2	50	1	50
MAUMEE RIVER to Detroit	2	50	1	50

Furniture and Luggage from Buffalo to ports east of Cleveland, 30 cents per 100; west of Cleveland to Detroit, 35 cents. Wagons: double, 3 dollars; single, 2 dollars 50 cents.

PRICES OF PASSAGE ON THE UPPER LAKES.

BUFFALO to				
Mackinac	12	00	6	00
Milwaukie, Racine, Southport, or Chicago	14	00	7	00
CLEAVELAND to				
Mackinac	10	00	6	00
Chicago, &c.	11	00	6	00
DETROIT to				
Mackinac	7	00	4	00
Chicago, &c.	8	00	5	00
MACKINAC to Milwaukie, Racine, Southport, or Chicago	7	00	4	00
MILWAUKIE to				
Racine	2	00	1	50
Southport	2	50	2	00
Chicago	3	00	2	50
RACINE to				
Southport	1	00		50
Chicago	2	50	2	00
SOUTHPORT to Chicago	2	00	1	50

Furniture and Luggage to Mackinac, and any port on Lake Michigan, 65 cents per 100, or 1 dollar per bbl., bulk. Wagons: double, 5 dollars; single, 4 dollars.

TABLE OF DISTANCES TO AND FROM BUFFALO, CLEVELAND, DETROIT, AND CHICAGO.

From BUFFALO to	Miles.				
Dunkirk	45	Vermilion	229	Th. Bay Isle	587
Erie	90	Huron	239	Presque Isle	677
Conneaut	118	Sandusky	249	Mackinaw	687
Ashtabula	131	Toledo	299	Maniton Isle	787
Grand River	151	Monroe	327	Milwaukie	967
Cleveland	191	Detroit	362	Racine	987
Black River	219	Fort Gratiot	437	Southport	990
		Point A. Barks	512	Chicago	1054

It should be observed, that the distances on the lakes are not *measured*, but simply estimated by the different pilots. Hence there is a disagreement in the various tables, to the extent of forty or fifty miles in a thousand. The above table may be relied on as about right.

Steamboats are usually about two days in going from Buffalo to Detroit, and five days from Buffalo to Chicago.

There is a class of steam-vessels on the lakes, called "propellers," which are found to be very desirable modes of conveyance for emigrants. They are large-sized schooners, with a small steam engine in the after-part of their hold, to use in head-winds and in calms, using their sails at other times. Their charges are somewhat less than those of the large steamers, say a sixth less. Their speed bears about the same proportion to that of the steamers.

OSWEGO ROUTE—TO OHIO, MICHIGAN, WISCONSIN, ILLINOIS, &c., AND TO CANADA WEST.

This route is favourably spoken of by many who have tried it. Early in the spring, and late in the autumn, it is not a desirable route for passengers going west of Buffalo, as there is more *lake* navigation than by way of Buffalo.

The following are the rates of passage:

From OSWEGO to	Cabin		Steerage					
Kingston	$2	50	1	50	Brockville	4	00	2	00
Toronto	2	50	1	50	Prescott	4	00	2	00
Niagara	4	00	2	00	Coburgh	4	00	2	00
Lewiston	4	00	2	00	Port Hope	4	00	2	00
					Ogdensburgh	4	00	2	00

100lbs. of luggage to each passenger, free. Extra luggage 25 cents per 100lbs.

Emigrants will find at Oswego a weekly line of propellers, bound for Milwaukie, Racine, Chicago, Detroit, and intermediate ports. These propellers carry freight and passengers. They have commodious cabins, handsomely fitted up. The cabins are specially prepared for the accommodation of families; and their steerages will each furnish good berths for seventy-five passengers. The charges of these vessels are as follow:

FROM OSWEGO TO DETROIT.

Cabin passage and found	$7	50	Furniture and luggage, per bbl. bulk		62
Do. not found	5	00	Two-horse wagons	4	00
Steerage passage, not found	4	00	One-horse wagons	3	00

FROM OSWEGO TO MILWAUKIE, RACINE, SOUTHPORT, AND CHICAGO.

Cabin passage and found	$14	00	Furniture and baggage, per bbl. bulk	1	00
Do. not found	10	00	Two-horse wagons	7	00
Steerage passage, not found	6	00	One-horse wagons	6	00

The barrel bulk is estimated at seven cubic feet; three hairs called once barrel bulk; children between two and twelve years of age, half-price; under two years of age, free; one half a barrel bulk of furniture or luggage is allowed each full passenger, free. No charge is made for the freight of the bedding used by the steerage or deck passengers on their passage. A cooking-stove, not exposed to the weather, is provided for the accommodation of those who wish to board themselves. All luggage belonging to passengers consenting to have it carried on the promenade-deck, at their own risk, will be transported at 75 cents for each barrel bulk; and for that carried under deck, 81 for each barrel bulk.

From Godwin's "Advice to Emigrants," we take the following observations:

"You are of course aware that New York is the landing-place of most persons who would locate in the states; and you must be aware also, from the influx of strangers continually pouring in there, that it is impossible for merchants, traders, and others, to give employment to one-tenth part of those that

arrive there. Under these circumstances, I recommend both mechanic and labourer to quit that place while they have money in their pockets to assist themselves. The facilities for travelling in the United States are cheap and good. Steamboats, railroad conveyance, and coaches, start daily for all parts. Lose no time then, I say, in working your way out of New York. This you will find to be the most profitable way of laying the foundation of your future happiness. And here I would remark, that it is one of the most admirable traits of the Germans and Swiss: they seldom or ever stay in New York more than a day or two; no, they merely reconnoitre the city, which is natural for strangers to do, then prudently make the best of their way to the west, where labour is plenty, and sure to meet with its due reward (farmers especially)."

In the year 1834, Mr. J. W. Dover induced a *poor* farm labourer, then out of work, with nine young children, to solicit being paid by his parish to go to America. He landed at New York with Baring's credit for *twenty-one pounds*. He was so good a man, that the farmers he had worked for in West Sussex supplied him with provisions for his voyage, and conveyed his family to the London Docks. He proceeded to Pennsylvania, where he had a brother-in-law. The following is extracted from his last letters to his brothers, dated "Warren County, 26th March, 1846:"

"I have not finished paying for my new farm; but I think I shall be able in the spring: I paid half when I bought it, and since then I have bought fifty acres more. I have been at a great expense since I came here [to his *second* farm]. I built me a barn 34 feet one way, by 40 the other: it cost me 100 dollars (£42); and it is now finished. I have nine sash windows down-stairs that have fifteen lights, 8in. by 10in., in each. I have 20 acres cleared on my new farm; and if I have my health, I shall soon get it all cleared, and then I can live like a king. I have killed three hogs that will weigh 70 stone each, and a small cow of 500lbs. good beef, besides giving 50lbs. fat for our candles."

"I have now 12 children. Have 2 cows, and plenty of good fresh butter. I sold my first farm for 500 dollars (£105), in June, 1840. I went six miles further, and bought me another. I have not worked for any one but myself, nor do I think that I ever shall again, for I can live without it.

The success that has attended this hard-working man in the free country, could not have occurred in any of the British colonies. In the United States, he has not been held down by a state church and its (poor man's curse) professors, or the government, civil and legal functionaries—all sent out with little knowledge of colonial life and its wants, yet all paid exorbitant salaries for doing much mischief and penury—no greater drawback than to be under any of the colonial governments of Great Britain. J. W. D.

124, *Fenchurch-street, September 16th*, 1848.

The following is the rate of wages and provisions at Mobile, taken from a letter received by Mr. Langabeer, of London, April, 1848.

	Dollars.
Mechanic's wages	2 to 3 per day.
Labourer's, with board and lodging	15 to 20 per month.
Flour, per barrel, weight 196lbs	5½
Bacon (taking a quantity)	2d. per lb.
Whiskey	10d. per gallon.

A railroad is in contemplation from Mobile to the mouth of the Ohio, which, if realized, must greatly increase the trade and prosperity of Mobile.

We cannot better conclude our present labours than by quoting (with the permission of the gentleman to whom the letter is addressed, Mr. Lawrence Pitkethy, of Huddersfield), the excellent observations of Mr. John Smyles, who has been many years resident in the United States, and has, during that period, had ample opportunities of forming a sound opinion on the working of their political and social institutions, as well as the general condition of the people.

We place the more reliance on his statements, inasmuch as they evidently proceed from a mind more anxious to understate than overstate any of the advantages possessed by the States in this particular, and to give an impartial and unbiassed estimate of their general operation. With these recommendations, his opinions are deserving of serious attention.

"I still remain," says the doctor, "as radical as ever; nay, probably, I am more deeply dyed in the wool than when you knew me. Yet this country, or rather a residence in it of years, often changes the political opinions of old-country radicals. One sees so little of real practical republicanism, that some are apt to become disgusted, and, because of a little disappointment, almost become tory. But, to my mind, this is but a skin-deep view of things. A people just set up for themselves, on a new principle, cannot act with perfect wisdom at once. It would be absurd to expect it; but so long as they possess sufficient intelligence to retain in their own hands the power of change, time will correct the many abuses that have crept into their legislation. The greatest evil into which the American people have fallen, is that of having allowed wealth an undue influence. For years back, wealth alone has been legislated for. Throughout the Union, in every state, legislators seemed to meet for no other purpose than to enact laws to enhance its power and influence. Hence corporations and monopolies of all kinds sprung up, year after year, like mushrooms in September. It appears to me, now, however, that the people's eyes are opening to the fact, that no man, or body of men, are entitled to any privilege or right beyond the right of citizenship. The foundation-stone on which the whole superstructure of their system was built, was, that all men were born politically, and, in the eye of *all law*, free and equal. In their declaration of independence, this fundamental truth was the starting point; but ever since, in action, it has been lost sight of. Special or class legislation has obtained to a great extent; and unless the evil be remedied, our institutions will become a mockery and a by-word. Wealth will rule as surely and as certainly as it does with you. I sometimes think, in the present state of the intelligence and morality of the most advanced people, it will do so yet for ages; but I nevertheless struggle against its influence, whether wisely or well is a problem. Where the intelligence of the masses is unequal to the full understanding of their system of government, it is a simple and easy matter to cajole and deceive them, so as to render their productive powers subservient to advance special interests. I think it must be conceded that the form of our government was in advance of the intelligence of the people; hence the many anti-republican institutions that they permitted to grow up everywhere. They are the many poisonous vines that have slowly and stealthily crept up the tree of liberty. Unless pruned off, they will surely destroy its vitality. That such will not be their fate, I feel a fervent hope: enlivened and cheered by what I have observed since I came into this country, of the desire of the people to correct abuses which designing and selfish men have willingly encouraged, I cannot but entertain the belief that all will yet go well. The productive classes are firm and determined republicans. They have been so often misled by cunning politicians, that they are daily becoming awakened to the fact, that they must understand government, in all its relations, themselves, and not take the dictum of travelling orators as the standard by which to act and judge in politics, economy, and finance. They begin to study these matters, and think and act on their own responsibilities. These branches of knowledge, too, are being taught in our common schools—a thing hitherto neglected in all countries; and in this lies the political salvation of the people. Indeed, among the rising generation a knowledge of government is becoming a primary part of education, esteemed in this country more essential than all else.

"You say truly, when you remark that little dependence is to be placed on English writers on America. With very few exceptions, their books are the most trashy affairs that ever wounded the vanity of a vain people, or administered to the prejudice or ill-nature of the English tories. Nearly all of them evince the most consummate ignorance of the character of the yeomanry of this country; nevertheless, this is the class whose noble impulses give tone and vigour

to the national character, and they are the real bulwarks of American liberty. Who amongst these flippant manufacturers of books have made it their object to study the habits, the feelings, the desires, and the capacity for action of the Yankee farmers? Did the writers go among them, and make these a study—observe the unwearied industry, the temperate and virtuous tenor of their conduct, their general intelligence, and the honest independence after which their spirit craves? No; but frittering away their time among small parts of society—among those who ape the vicious habits of the European aristocracy, which their means are unable to support—they, after a few months, conclude to give a sketch of America and the Americans, as if they knew all about it and them. For the most part they spend their wit in pencilling the corrupt productions which result from the exotic plants borrowed from the old world; but those of a nobler growth, indigenous to the soil, are thought unworthy of notice. To estimate correctly the genuine American, and the effects of the institutions under which he lives, in forming his character, one must abide among the farmers of every degree, who hold from twenty-five to fifty, one hundred or more acres, and who work the soil they own. Find out that it is the ambition of all to become possessed of a piece of land which the poorest can call his own, and observe, in consequence, the influence of republicanism on the more equal division of the soil among the people. Contrast the system which encourages this, and permits the attainment of the former objects of human industry, with that which prevails in England, where wealth is produced but to be *unproductively* consumed in ostentation, pageantry, and tomfoolery. No; this would not do. It would stab to the very vitals the artificial and abhorrent system that obtains, not only in England, but over all old countries, and lend a glorious aid to the millions now struggling for political salvation."

THE POPULATION OF CANADA.

We understand that the result of the census, just completed (August, 1848), of Upper Canada, will give that section of the province a population of from 689,000 to 700,000 souls; while, by the census of 1842-1843, it was only 401,061, giving an increase, in five years, of nearly 300,000. The last census for Lower Canada was taken in 1844, when the population was 699,806 souls, the increase upon which, during the last four years, is calculated, by reference to preceding terms at which censuses have been taken, to be about 70,000, giving this section of the province a present population of about 770,000. The population of Upper Canada would thus appear to increase at the rate of about 40,000 per annum, and Lower Canada at about 17,000 per annum. Supposing these relative rates of increase to be maintained, the year 1852 will see Upper Canada with a population of 859,000, and Lower Canada with only 840,000. 1862 will will give the former a population of 1,259,000, and the latter only 1,015,000 souls. The experience of the past, and the present condition of Great Britain and Ireland, will, we think, justify the belief that the increase of our population by immigration will be greater during the next twelve years than it has ever hitherto been, and that the relative proportions of such increase will be largely in favour of Upper Canada. The probability then, is, that by the year 1862, the western section of the province will contain one million and a half of inhabitants, or one-third more than that of the eastern section.—*Montreal Herald.*

EMIGRATION OF POOR PERSONS.—By an act which passed on the 4th September, 1848, it is provided, by the fifth section (11 and 12 Vict. cap. 110), that the guardians of any union or parish may, with the order of the Poor Law Board, and in conformity with the regulations they may make respecting the emigration of poor persons, render assistance in the emigration of such persons, irremovable and chargeable on the common fund, and charge the cost upon the common fund of the union, or parish, in the event of their being no union.

(To be published occasionally.)

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Circular from Messrs. Harnden and Co., of Liverpool, to the Clergy and Poor Law Guardians of the United Kingdom.

GENTLEMEN,

You are already, doubtless, aware of the existence of the HIBERNIAN, ST. GEORGE, ST. ANDREW'S, and other Benevolent Societies in the United States, established expressly for the purpose of preventing imposition upon, and of giving advice and protection to, the large body of emigrants who yearly arrive in America with the intention of locating in the Western parts of the country. At the suggestion and with the sanction and approval of these societies, we have made arrangements with the different Steamboat, Railroad, and Canal Companies in the United States, and also with the owners of the lines of packet-ships sailing between this port and New York and Boston, which enable us to offer facilities to emigrants, that are, for speed and economy, far beyond the reach of any other parties at present engaged in the business.

Through these extensive arrangements, emigrants, if they wish, can, by purchasing certificates or making a small deposit here, secure their passage by our lines from New York and Boston to any important point in the far West, at a saving of one-fourth of the expense to which they will otherwise be subjected, and also will know the actual outlay required for them to reach their destination, which we pledge ourselves shall never be exceeded. They will likewise be protected from fraud upon their arrival in New York, as our Agents will be in attendance to receive them and to furnish any information they require, and to forward them without delay.

We take the liberty of addressing you on the subject, trusting that you will approve the course we are adopting, and that your influence will be used in our behalf, as we are determined to carry out in the fullest manner the philanthropic designs of these societies, and to do justice to the emigrants, who have heretofore been subjected to so much extortion and injustice. Should any parties in your district intend emigrating, and, through your recommendation, apply to us, you may rely upon their being honourably dealt with.

Respectfully requesting you to take the above remarks into your consideration,

We are,
Your obedient servants,
HARNDEN & CO.,
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P. S.—Information respecting localities, different routes, and facilities for reaching every important point in the United States, will be cheerfully given on application by letter or otherwise.

NOTE.—The author has no motive whatever for any partiality in reference to Emigration Agents; but he deems it but just to emigrants themselves, that they should be referred to the Circular of Messrs. Harnden and Co., because their arrangements differ from all others in this respect, viz., having offices and agents in all parts of the United States, they can *secure the economical and safe passage of the Emigrant, not only to New York, but to every part of the country*, and thus save him much anxiety, trouble, and imposition. This house may be relied upon as being well established, and of high respectability.

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